



**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES, DEVELOPMENT, AND HUMAN
SCIENCES**

**AN UNDERSTANDING ON THE NATURE OF RURAL CRIMES: A
CASE STUDY OF KWA-MAPHUMULO ESTEZI**

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Social Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Faculty of Humanities,
Development, and Social Sciences

2017

DECLARATION

I Nondumiso Mbatha declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated. I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification at any university.

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Nondumiso Mbatha

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ABSTRACT

Very little research has been done on rural crimes. The study at hand aims to understand the nature of rural crimes. The study employed an empirical research approach and design. This study was conducted at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi, a rural area in Pietermaritzburg under the uMshwathi municipality. Results shows that murder, livestock theft, burglary, rape, domestic violence and substance abuse are the types of crimes that exists in the area. The area is faced with high rate of unemployment because many young people are school dropouts and uneducated. The community is faced with serious economic problems and crime rate is escalating. Lack of recreational facilities was found to be a contributing factor to crime in the area. There is a greater distance between the community and the police and that also promotes crime. Building of proper infrastructure, availability of recreational facilities, crime awareness programs and psychological services are the recommendations of the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- My mother Duduzile Mbatha, the strongest women I know. Thank you for the unconditional love and support you have shown, you always have been my anchor and that has pushed me to completing this thesis and make you proud. Gatsheni!
- My daughter Oluhle and son Hlobo this one is for you. I love you guys so much.
- My 3 siblings Zandile, Nontobeko and Lindokuhle Thank you guys for everything.
- Dr Sazelo Mkhize, I would not have reached this far without your excellent support, love and supervision. Singela!
- Thobile Mbanjwa, you have been there when I needed you, always. Thank you. You made a great impact.
- My supervisor Ms Vuyelwa Maweni, Thank you so much.
- SASSETA thank you so much for funding.
- Assignment pros thank you for editing my work.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother MaNdlovu, my daughter Oluhle, my son Hlobo and the entire community of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

“An investment in knowledge pays the best interest.”

Benjamin Franklin

1.1 Introduction

Rural crime is any violent, property, or other type of crime that occurs “in the country.” This may be in agricultural areas, in small villages or towns, or any other areas that are outside both small and big cities. The rates of violent and property crime recorded by the police are lower in rural areas than they are in both small and big cities (Fraser, 2011). For violent offences, offenders in rural areas are less likely to use a weapon than those who commit crimes in cities. However, homicides committed with firearms in rural areas are more likely to involve the use of a rifle or shotgun, whereas, in cities, the firearm of choice is a handgun. Victims of violent crime in rural areas are more likely to know the perpetrators of crimes, likely due to small populations and tightly knit communities found in rural areas. Victimization surveys in Canada have found that residents in rural areas are slightly more satisfied about their safety from crime than residents in large cities. Similar results were found for rural residents’ satisfaction with the police in their area (Fraser, 2011).

Life in South Africa’s rural areas after decades of apartheid is characterized by harsh poverty and exclusion. Schooling is hampered by a lack of resources and violence between learners. Female students are targets of sexual assaults by teachers and fellow learners. Crime and policing takes on a bare form with rural dwellers struggling to access police stations and courts, low levels of crime reporting, and a police service challenged on many fronts.

In the face of these challenges, enormous crime and safety challenges confront rural dwellers: child safety, crimes against women, interpersonal violence, substance abuse, youth disenchantment, stock theft and problems affecting farm dwellers. These are exacerbated by numerous factors peculiar to rural areas, not least of which is the migrant labour system which continues to erode rural family life (KZN community safety and liaison, 2010).

High levels of crime pose a serious threat to rural communities. Apart from tragic loss of life, crimes such as robbery, theft and hijacking deprive rural dwellers of their meagre possessions. At a more macro level, rural crime impacts on food security creating a risk for the overall developmental prospects of the country (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

Changes occurring within rural communities affect entire families. Often, they result in a lack of guidance and communication between family members, and crime becomes a likely outcome. Children, especially boys, need positive adult role-models. Many children live with grandparents who find it difficult to exercise authority and administer discipline.

Rural crime is different than crime that occurs in cities. In many rural areas, residents live far away from their neighbours. Residents may also drive into the city to go to work or go shopping during the day, and children and youth often must travel long distances to go to school. This means that houses and other property are left unattended during the daytime and into the evening hours. There is also little police presence in many rural areas because of the large areas these officers must patrol. These factors mean that crimes can be committed in rural areas fairly easily without anyone seeing (Fraser, 2011).

Early research into rural crime focused on vandalism and petty theft committed by “amateur” criminals. Later, researchers identified the operation of more “professional” criminals in rural areas, including in farm equipment theft, livestock theft, and burglary. Whereas in the past, these professional criminal acts may have been difficult to pull off, modern highways and vehicles make committing these crimes much easier (Fraser, 2011). Now it is recognised that many of the same types of crimes that occur in cities also occur in rural areas, even if there has still not been much research in the field.

Rural crime affects the individuals who live in rural, remote, or isolated areas. As of 2001, 13% of Ontario’s population lived in rural areas, the smallest proportion of all provinces and territories in Canada. This is a drop from 15.8% in 1991. Rural populations are declining due to rural-urban migration, particularly among young people. The people most likely to live in rural areas are seniors, who may migrate into rural areas from the city when they retire, and children, who live with their parents until they are grown, but then may decide to migrate to the city (Fraser, 2011).

Residents who live in rural areas tend to live in bigger households, with 31.8% of households having four or more people. Ninety-five % of homes in rural areas are single-detached houses

(City of Ottawa, 2005). Few ethnic minorities choose to live in rural areas, making many rural communities ethnically homogeneous (Fraser, 2011).

Rural crime occurs within a unique culture. Rural culture is characterised by traditional belief systems and ways of doing things, community attitudes about how to deal with crime, and strong attachments to privacy, as well as friendship and family ties (Wendt, 2009). The existence of these factors means that residents may be less likely to report crimes to the police because they do not want their neighbours, friends, or family members to be arrested or because they are afraid of retaliation from known perpetrators. People living in rural communities may also prefer to handle conflicts on their own, rather than resort to urban-style “law and order” interventions (Fraser, 2011).

Added to this is the reality that many rural communities are very remote or isolated from urban centres. This means that even if residents would like criminal justice or social institutions to be involved in dispute resolution or responding to crimes, access to and availability of these services are limited. In Ontario, some jurisdictions are covered by municipal police forces, while others by the OPP. Police officers working in rural areas are often mandated to engage in “community-based policing,” but this can produce some tensions when police officers are a part of the community (Fraser, 2011).

This study looks at the case of Kwa-Maphumulo EStezi which is a one of the rural area of Pietermaritzburg. There are too many incidences of violence and crime that occur in this community that the researcher is aware of as she is a member of this community. However, there is a gap in literature which is why the researcher decided to conduct research to investigate the nature of crimes in this rural area and how these crimes affect community member. And also, to assess if there are any strategies that the community can employ in dealing with crime. The researcher was correspondingly interested in finding out whether the issues affecting other rural communities exist in the Community of Kwa-Maphumulo EStezi.

1.2 Background of the study and problem statement

There are several types of crimes facing rural areas. Most research has been done on community violence only. There are types of crimes that are not violent in nature which take place in rural areas and affect the members of the community severely, but researchers have ignored these types of crimes. These crimes include theft which happens regularly in rural areas, fraud, and many others. Many rural communities are affected with crimes that takes place in their areas,

but these effects have been somehow ignored by researchers, the media and the criminal justice system.

In addition, crime is a significant problem for rural communities, and is not confined to big cities only. There are many ways in which crime committed in rural areas is different from crime committed in cities: different targets for burglary and theft (e.g., farm equipment, livestock, etc.); isolation from helping agencies for victims of domestic violence or individuals with drug or alcohol abuse problems; lack of police presence for individuals in the drug cultivation or production trade; and, lack of opportunities for youth. These factors combine to make crime prevention in rural areas a unique challenge. Unfortunately, few rigorous evaluations exist of crime prevention programs implemented in rural areas (Fraser, 2011)

Levels of recorded crime in South Africa began to increase in the mid-1980s — dramatically so in the early 1990s. Expectations that violent crime would decrease after 1994 have not materialised. While levels of recorded crime stabilized between 1995 and 1996, crime has been increasing since then. The annual increase in the overall number of recorded crimes was greater in 1999 than in any previous year after 1994 (Schönteich and Louw, 2001). Violent crimes increased at a greater rate than the total over this period. According to the latest available statistics at the time of writing, levels of recorded crime continued to increase during much of the first half of 2000.

Government views the safety and security of the rural community in South Africa as a priority. The seriousness of continued acts of violence against the rural community, as well as the high levels of stock theft required that a comprehensive and holistic strategy be formulated to support the creation of a safe rural environment and ensure food security (National rural safety strategy, 2010). Rural communities contribute to the welfare and prosperity of the country as an economically viable group. South Africa is characterised by high levels of poverty and underdevelopment, especially in the rural areas. Statistics South Africa reported that in 2006, 43.74% of the population lived in rural areas. In the State of the Nation address in May 2009, President Jacob Zuma stated that “comprehensive rural development linked to land and agrarian reform and food security” was priority three on the Medium Term Strategic Framework for 2009-2014.

Farmers, farm workers and residents within rural communities are considered soft targets by criminals (National rural safety strategy, 2010). This is due to the remoteness of farms, high market value of properties, large distances between farms and villages and the inaccessibility

to the police as well as basic infrastructure, such as roads, to support service delivery. Rural police stations are often isolated and responsible to police vast areas. The extent and high levels of poverty and unemployment within rural communities creates a challenge to policing. Communities are less willing to participate in partnerships with the police. Inadequate response to the needs of rural communities and resource constraints hamper the rendering of effective policing in many rural areas (National rural safety strategy, 2010).

The problem of crimes against children in rural areas is under-researched and very little information is therefore available to inform appropriate rural child protection programmes. Much work needs to be done to determine whether there are factors present in rural communities that may contribute to the increased vulnerability of rural children to being victimised. What is known however is that crimes committed against children in rural areas is hidden and does not come to the attention of outsiders (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

Child sexual-abuse of rural children occurs because of the powerlessness and poverty of rural children within the context of the socio-economic challenges facing rural areas. It is believed that the structure of the rural family accentuates the sexual abuse of rural girls, with young men in particular not receiving adequate guidance as they mature, particularly in relation to gender relations and their own sexuality. The school is unfortunately also a site of much of the sexual violence against girls with many girls being raped, sexually abused, assaulted and harassed by teachers and their fellow classmates.

The impact of sexual crimes on children include isolation from their peers, often leading to depression, and lower quality of their own parenting later in life. Rural child victims are much more likely to succumb to these impacts given the lack of therapeutic services available to rural victims and they are more prone to secondary victimization during investigations and trials since police stations and courts in rural areas often lack the infrastructure to protect children (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010). Most rural children still walk long distances to school. There is need for strengthening the networks that respond to child abuse, neglect and exploitation in rural areas. Many children are often unaware that acts committed against them are, in fact, crimes. Factors that restrict children's access to justice include instances where the perpetrator is the family breadwinner or authority figure, and where there simply are no resources to access service providers. There are reports of illegal child labour occurring where many children work both in formal and informal agriculture as a form of

bonded labour for the ‘privilege’ of staying on a farm. The Constitution provides that children under 18 have a right to be protected from work that is exploitative, hazardous, or otherwise inappropriate for their age, detrimental to their schooling, or detrimental to their social, physical, mental, spiritual, or moral development. According to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, it is a criminal offence to employ a child under the age of 15, except if you have a permit from the Department of Labour to employ children in the performing arts. Further, children aged 15 to 18 may not be employed to do work inappropriate for their age or work that places them at risk (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

The following is a list of some of the types of crimes that occur in rural areas and how they differ from the same crimes committed in cities.

1.2.1 Domestic violence

Domestic violence occurs in rural homes like it does in homes in the city. However, victims tend to be much further away from help than they would be in the city and may lack transportation to get to shelter or counselling services in the city. Because of tightly knit rural communities, victims may be embarrassed to speak out about the abuse or fear retaliation from the abuser’s friends or family (Wendt, 2009). Guns are also a major factor in domestic violence in rural areas. In a study conducted in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, 66% of abused women who lived in households containing guns said that the guns made them more fearful for their safety and well-being. In this same group of women, 70% said that the guns influenced their decision to tell others about the abuse (Fraser, 2011).

1.2.2 Drug and alcohol abuse

These two were traditionally thought to be “big city” problems. However, alcohol abuse and illicit drug use are often found in rural areas at similar rates as found in urban centres (Fraser, 2011). An Australian study found that people living in rural areas were slightly more likely to use alcohol and tobacco and slightly less likely to use illicit drugs than people living in big cities. Problems with drugs and alcohol can arise in rural areas as they may be the only source of entertainment and may be related to boredom, especially among youth. Among adults living in rural areas, drug and alcohol abuse can be related to stress over unemployment or insufficient income, isolation, and working long hours (Bull, 2007a). Drug and alcohol abuse treatment programs are also less accessible, available, and affordable for people living in rural areas, making it difficult for residents to get clean (Fraser, 2011).

1.2.3 Impaired driving

This is related to a high social acceptability of alcohol use. One Canadian study found that rural youth are at a higher risk than urban youth of ever having driven with an impaired (i.e., through alcohol or marijuana use) adult or peer driver (Leadbeater, Foran, and Grove-White, 2008). In a study in Alberta, impaired driving rates and fatalities were also more common in rural areas (Fraser, 2011).

1.2.4 Youth issues

Youth issues are very different in rural areas than they are in cities. While the causes of youth crime may be similar, many risk factors for youth crime are worse in rural areas. For example, school attendance, graduation rates, and youth employment tend to be lower in the more remote parts of rural areas. There are also fewer recreational options for youth in rural areas (e.g., shopping malls, cinemas, sport facilities, etc.) and a lack of public transportation to get to these activities in urban areas. Youth suicide rates also tend to be higher in rural areas (Fraser, 2011). Many rural youths are increasingly using illicit drugs, mainly mandrax and dagga, but more recently, ecstasy and cocaine. There is also an increase in alcohol consumption among rural youth. In Paddock (Ezinqoleni Municipality, Ugu District), youth frequenting taverns are known to become violent both at the taverns as well as when they return home. Rural youth start consuming alcohol from a young age and some have been found to be drunk while at school (KZN community safety and liaison, 2010)

This study will generate knowledge on rural crime focusing on the reasons for its occurrence as well as the effect it has on the members of the community.

1.3 Motivation of the study

Rural crime and its effects on young people, especially when viewed through an academic lens is still one of the least understood topics in the field of criminology and criminal justice today. This may be attributed to many factors, some of which form part of the discussions that follow. Primarily, research into rural crime and its effect remains sparse since scholars and researchers have spent most of their efforts on trying to understand urban patterns of crime (Mkhize, 2012).

Researchers are beginning to look at how rural crime can be prevented, though rigorous evaluations of rural crime prevention programs are rare. It is important that rural crime prevention programs and approaches stem from a sound theoretical base. This means that crime prevention practitioners need to have knowledge about the population of a given community

and the nature of the crime problem in that community before implementing any prevention initiatives (Frazer, 2011). Programs that work in one community cannot be automatically applied to another community – differences in community characteristics, levels and types of crime, and implementation strategies need to be assessed (O’Block et al., 2002).

In addition to the above factors, crime prevention practitioners also need to determine if there are any patterns or variations in the commission of rural crimes (O’Block et al., 2002). Because many crimes committed in rural areas are not reported to the police, police data on crime rates must be used cautiously. It is important to understand that police data only account for crimes reported to the police, and do not represent the actual level of crime experienced by residents. Victimization surveys at the community-level need to be conducted to gain a broader sense of the number of crimes occurring in each community. These surveys can be initiated by any community-based organization dedicated to improving rural life (e.g., volunteer fire departments, church groups, 4-H clubs, etc.), though volunteers may wish to get advice from or work in partnership with crime prevention researchers (McCauley, 2002).

Once the crime problem for a given community has been assessed, that community then must determine what resources they have available to implement a crime prevention program (e.g., money, people, equipment, etc.) (McCauley, 2002). Crime prevention strategies should be chosen based on a balance between the needs of the community, the available resources, and evidence-based practices that have been showing to work in preventing rural crime. Every crime prevention program should also include an on-going evaluation component by which the effectiveness of the program can be measured. This should include a replication of the initial needs assessment to determine if crime levels have decreased, increased, or stayed the same (Fraser, 2011).

The Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area is faced with high rate of unemployment because many young people are school dropouts. The community is faced with serious economic problems and crime rate is escalating. Many rural communities in South Africa are faced with the same issue and not so many researchers have focused on rural crimes, specifically its nature. Not having enough research that speaks about the nature of rural crimes has been a motivation for this study. It is always better to know the causes to the problem before trying to reduce to minimise the problem. This study will find the causes of rural crime. This will help the South African government when trying to tackle the issue of rural crime.

1.4 Aim and objectives of the Study

1.4.1 Aim

The aim of the study at hand was to understand the nature of rural crimes and how it affects members of the community. The study employed an empirical research approach and design.

To achieve this aim, the following objectives were adopted:

1.4.2 Objectives

- To investigate the types of crimes that exist in the rural areas.
- To explore reasons for the occurrence of crime.
- To determine the effect of crime to the community.
- To determine if there are any crime prevention strategies that are in the community and to understand its effectiveness.

1.5 Research questions

- What are the types of crimes that exist in rural areas?
- Why does crime occur in rural areas?
- What are the effects of crime to the community?
- What are the crime prevention strategies does the community have and how effective are they?

1.6 Chapter Sequence

This dissertation consists of six chapters.

Chapter One provides the introduction and the background of the study. The aim, the objectives and the critical questions that were addressed are also presented.

Chapter Two provides the literature review that was found relevant to the study.

Chapter Three presents the theoretical framework which comprised the theories that guided the study.

Chapter Four describes the scientific methodology used in this study to achieve the study's objectives. The study was essentially a qualitative research study.

Chapter Five presents the data by analysing and exploring the similarities and differences among the views that had been elicited from the participants. A comprehensive discussion of

the data that were obtained is presented. This study essentially employed a thematic data analysis process.

Chapter Six which forms the last chapter of the dissertation focuses on the conclusions that were drawn and it offers recommendations based on the results that were obtained from an analysis and evaluation of the research data.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overall overview of the study by illuminating the core of the dissertation as expressed through the background, its aim, and objectives. The motivation for this study and the objectives for undertaking the study were therefore outlined. The study will focus solely on understanding the nature of rural crimes.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

“The more that you read, the more things you will know. The more that you learn, the more places you will go”

Dr Seuss

2.1 Introduction

Rural areas in South Africa are a continual and recurring priority for development and social upliftment. This is not surprising since it is acknowledged that much of South Africa’s population live in extremely difficult socio-economic conditions in rural areas. There is a two-way relationship between safety and rural development: on the one hand, where there is insecurity and crime, development is hampered and on the other, where there is under-development, insecurity and crime set in.

Ralph et al, (2004) claimed that research in rural settings conclude that crime is less common in the same, and greater informal controls in rural neighbourhood’s guard against high crime rates. However, the misplaced conviction that crime is less common in rural areas is open to discussion since not much research has been carried out on the crimes in rural areas. Rural crime is worth investigating in its individual right. Significantly, such examination has the potential to help to comprehend and give explanation to many characteristics of rural crime.

Life in South Africa’s rural areas after decades of apartheid is characterised by harsh poverty and exclusion. Schooling is hampered by a lack of resources and violence between learners. Female students are targets of sexual assaults by teachers and fellow learners. Crime and policing takes on a bare form with rural dwellers struggling to access police stations and courts, low levels of crime reporting, and a police service challenged on many fronts (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2009).

In the face of these challenges, enormous crime and safety challenges confront rural dwellers: child safety, crimes against women, interpersonal violence, substance abuse, youth disenchantment, stock theft and problems affecting farm dwellers. These are exacerbated by numerous factors peculiar to rural areas, not least of which is the migrant labour system which continues to erode rural family life (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2009). The chapter explores published literature on rural crime in the world. It explores the nature of

rural crimes in the developed world as well as in South Africa and provides a comparative analysis.

2.2 Definition of rural areas and crime

Donnermayer (2007), cited by Tucker (2015) argued that rural regions and districts tend to have several universal characteristics:

- A minute and a lesser number of inhabitants.
- A better acquaintance and extra enlarged communal sphere and society. This is maintained by Websdale (2005) who declared that individuals residing in the countryside societies are further expected to be acquainted with each other, draw closer regularly with every member of the community and contribute to a big core of customs than is factual of persons in towns.
- Rural societies are a great deal less independent than previously thought. This statement shows how societal transformation and its growth have eliminated some of the unique and exclusive characteristics of communal traditions, and have shut the fissures between rural and town locations.

According to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison (2012), rural being might also be explained based on the *financial*, *communal*, *psychosomatic*, and *cultural being* of a locale:

- *Financial*: A locale might be classified as rural found on a leading financial activity, frequently farming;
- *Communal*: Scientists also demarcate a region as communal by coalescing tools that measure significance, conducts, values, and sentiments of persons existing inside a neighbourhood;
- *Culture*: Rural customs often denotes to the supposed different routines of individuals in rural neighbourhoods. While urban residents are supposed to be swift-paced, diverse and simply adaptable to transformation, rural dwellers are alleged to be sluggish paced, homogenous, and unwilling to renounce custom;

- *Psychosomatic*: Persons' character-identity as being components of a rural society, with choices anchored upon outlooks of associations with erstwhile area associates also put countryside areas separately as distinctive.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison (2012) further claim that a lot of individuals, particularly the elder age group amongst Africans choose to stay put in bucolic areas because expenses of housing are lesser, and they can keep livestock. Moreover, KZN department of community safety and liaison (2012) perceive that residing in the innate environment is further enjoyable than life in towns. Being thinly inhabited, communal areas have a better logic of society. Folks are predisposed to be acquainted with one another and usually share with everyone in a friendlier way.

According to Fraser (2011), rural crime is any aggressive, material goods theft and/or any current category of crime that happens in the countryside. These crimes may happen in farming areas of land, in miniature hamlets or townships, or any other areas that are external to both tiny and large metropolis.

2.3 Rural crime around the world

Criminologists in the United States of America have sustained a narrow, but frequent attention to rural crime since time immemorial. Jobes et al. (2004) argued that studies on rural societal deviance have recently been infrequent in the developed world and almost absent in developing nations. They argue that occurrence of rural crimes in the USA range from moderately low in pastoral centres of population such as the Walcha, too high in a few towns in Western areas. High speeds of transgression and occurrences of hostility have been researched among the indigenous people (Cunneen, 1990 in Jobes et al., 2004). Methods of rural crime characteristically measured to be usually associated with urban regions, such as bunch of hooligans, also take place in small rural peripheries. Bunch of hooligans with numerous drug and robbery desecrations among their elements are now frequently accounted in the trendy press for rural neighbourhoods right through the United States.

A research of rural crime conducted in Scotland by Donnermeyer and Barclay (2005) revealed that one third of the farmers witnessed a crime in the last half a decade. Regularly happening crimes consisted of defacement, trivial theft, and the unlawful discarding of refuse or poisonous waste. Stealing of oil, stock, equipment, gateways, all-terrain cars, chainsaws, fence and equipment, tractor radios, and processors was also reported (Donnermeyer et al, 2005). Several

farmers also witnessed arson and burglary. Stock theft led to the maximum economic loss to cultivators. Farmers on undersized assets or properties situated in semi-urban neighbourhoods, or close to major highways were mainly susceptible to crime. Thus, it is against this background that causes of rural crimes is discussed below.

2.4 Causes of crimes in rural areas

There are several reasons why rural crimes occur both in the developed and developing countries. This section will explore the causes of rural crimes citing examples from around the world. The main causes of rural crimes are summarised in Figure 2.1 below:

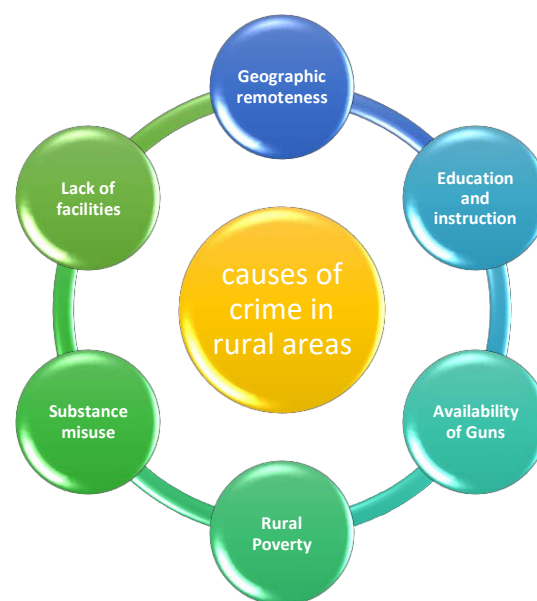


Figure 2.1 Causes of rural crimes

2.4.1 Rural Poverty

Poverty in rural areas is a major problem. There are high levels of unemployment and most females depend on their male breadwinners who, because of South Africa's deeply entrenched patterns of internal migration, invariably work in urban centres. The youth depend on their parents and other caregivers (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010). Rural areas are also characterised by the so-called 'young pensioners' – young people whose only source of sustenance are the old age pensions of their relatives, and more recently, the disability and child support grants received from the State.

Poverty limits access to education, health, and shelter. With population increases, these forms of social exclusion are predicted to grow. Access to municipal services such as water, sewerage

systems, roads, public safety, and transport are made more difficult for people living in far-flung rural locations. The impact of HIV/AIDS on the rural community also continues to erode developmental prospects (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

High poverty rate is in fact to some extent advanced generally in rural regions than in municipal locales. A study conducted by DeNavas-Walt, et al, (2010) shows that 16.5% rural dwellers were categorised as formally poor, contrasted to 14.9 % of town dwellers. However, poor rural population was approximately 8 million, whilst the figure of poor town inhabitants (a reflection of the urbanised nature of the US) was almost 36 million (DeNavas-Walt, et al, (2010). Rural scarcity is likely more constant than town poverty since there are various aspects that add to its soaring rate. These reasons consist of the migration of youthful, extremely capable employees; the deficiency of manufacturing occupations that characteristically have been top paying than farming professions; and inadequate chances for the optimally rewarding jobs of the information age. Biotechnology corporations, electronics firms, and current signs of the 'information age' are barely created in the rural abodes. Instead, they establish their operations in or near urban neighbourhoods, where there are universities, lots of citizens, and current essential features these businesses require to accomplish something (DenVanas-Walt et al., 2010).

The multifaceted dilemma of poverty means that rural neighbourhoods are further probable than urban areas to be short of social care programmes to mitigate the plight of the poor, those with disabilities, aged, and other special populations (National Advisory Committee on Rural Health and Human Services, 2011). Due to the geographically smaller nature of rural towns, they frequently cannot meet the expense of services such as, "soup kitchens, homeless shelters, and Meals on Wheels," and consequently must base on services situated in other cities. Rural towns are often sparse, making it challenging and costly for bucolic inhabitants to acquire the services they require. An illustration of 'Meals on Wheels' programme in a town may journey just a few kilometres and supply many people, whereas it possibly will have to travel further than one hundred kilometres in a rural area and dish up only a few people. Adding together this problem is the sturdy nous in many rural areas that persons must be adequately strong to fend for themselves and not allow government assistance. In the event of accessible services, several people who require them refuse to seize the benefit of them since they have superiority complex and are embarrassed (National Advisory Committee on Rural Health and Human Services, 2011).

Fraser (2011) argued that poverty drives the rural people to the route of criminal activity as a way of escaping poverty. Since there are no old people's homes, a lot of female elders are raped because they are dwelling at homes unaccompanied with nobody caring for them because their offspring and grandchildren live in cities searching for superior life opportunities. Furthermore, stealing in rural areas also occurs because of poverty in rural areas where things like chickens, crops and others are stolen to avoid going to bed hungry.

Muhammad (2011) observed that the financial predicaments facing rural areas may be accepted to not merely influence the character and degree of the offence, but the supplies accessible to countryside law enforcement. Anywhere income tax supports are little, rural law enforcement divisions are prone to be gravely short-staffed and devoid of significant reserves. Therefore, the economic challenges in front of rural areas can be expected to not only affect the nature and extent of crime but the resources available to rural law enforcement as well. A local sheriff in rural US, for example, whose small table comprises of an old doorway stretched across two half-height filing cabinets and has a total of three police law enforcement officers (counting himself) to patrol large county 7 days a week, 24 hours a day.

It is surprising that the many researches of scarcity and transgression have so gravely abandoned bucolic neighbourhoods. Apart from communal-city contrasts, some studies have fixed on the association linking financial issues and offence amongst communal areas. Arthur (1991) established that such financial issues as joblessness, poverty intensity, and reliance on government support were connected to mutually brutal and property thefts rates in communal districts, although the connection was higher for property thefts.

2.4.2 Lack of facilities

Young people in rural neighbourhoods may perhaps stumble on difficulties in terms of access to an extensive variety of services, job openings, and leisure time amenities. Subsequently, the risk of them being implicated in crime or chaos can increase. Godwin (2010) observed that rural kids, regularly living huge distances from their schools and community chores, possibly will essentially have less chance to traverse with their bicycles or stroll to school than urban kids and frequently must organise additional transportation if they desire to hang out after school to partake in sports programmes or use the school's gym or current neighbourhood facilities. Still, if a rural kid resides near their school, parents may have security apprehensions concerning the safety of cycling on rural paths. Communal roads are extremely dangerous. In a research of traffic mishaps in 2002 by the Washington State Department of Transportation

(WSDT), it was established that the numerous lethal accidents on communal roads were more than twofold that of urban roads. Parents are apprehensive about their children strolling or cycling unaccompanied on rural motorways and tracks. Nearness is important in entrance to leisure, scenery and boosted physical action. Residing in rural areas habitually denotes immense distances between significant localities. In urban locations, presenting suitable admission to leisure facilities takes closeness into consideration. An urban recreational area or leisure service's "Neighbourhood Service Locale" is regarded as to be as 500 metres from its boundary or within strolling distance for a fit human being. It is moderately uncommon to stumble on this ease in a rural location (Goodwin, 2010).

Rural areas lack entertainment and job opportunities leading to young people engaging in crime because of boredom and peer pressure. One former inmate interviewed in this study told of how his parents' marital difficulties led to the neglect of him and his siblings who were left to their own devices. It was only a matter of time before the company he began to keep influenced him to commit a hijacking and murder for which he received a prison sentence. 12 Respondents in Port Shepstone also gave similar accounts of how little entertainment there was for residents of the KZN South Coast. As a result, most people seek entertainment at the beaches (Saint Michael's, Margate, and Port Edward) which results in overcrowding and various petty offences being committed by those consuming alcohol in public places (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

2.4.3 Substance abuse in rural neighbourhoods

Fraser (2011) argued that one of the largely widespread fallacies regarding drug abuse these days is the conviction that drug craving and abuse are only inside metropolitan areas. Drug abuse is universal, and it is increasing at a frightening pace in rural areas which are short of the resources and infrastructure to supply sufficient schooling, sustaining and health services to persons struggling with drug and alcohol cravings. Rural areas that are mainly susceptible are repeatedly the centres where the least resources are in position to help those who are surviving with addictions on drugs or alcohol. Booth et al. (2000) maintained that substance misuse inside a rural community can cause a lot of predicaments. Intensified crime and violence, vehicular accidents caused by driving whilst under the influence of alcohol, increasing of communicable illnesses, alcohol syndrome, hazardous sexual behaviour and joblessness can all be the effect of one or further types of substance abuse in rural settings.

An Australian research revealed that those residing in rural areas were somewhat more prone to make use of alcohol in addition to tobacco and to some extent unlikely to use banned drugs as compared to individuals living in large cities (Australian National Council on Drugs, 2002). According to Bull (2007), the predicaments with drugs and alcohol may occur in rural regions as they might be the single basis of amusement and can be linked to boredom, particularly amongst youth. Amongst grown-ups residing in rural areas, drug as well as alcohol misuse can be linked to anxiety over joblessness or inadequate income, remoteness, and working extended hours. Drug as well as alcohol abuse management programmes are also less available, accessible, and expensive for individuals residing in rural locales, making it hard for citizens to get rehabilitation (Booth, 2000).

A Canadian research established that rural adolescents are at an advanced danger than city youth of being in a car driven by a drunk grown-up or friend driver (Leadbeater et al., 2008). The study of Alberta, (2009) shows that driving under the influence of drugs or alcohol above speed limits and property losses caused by this state were also extra common in rustic areas.

There are a variety of aspects that add to the incidence of rural offences. The crisis of substance abuse, including alcohol and prohibited drugs is one of the aspects that add to the issue of communal crimes. This problem has two elements, i.e. use by rural inhabitants and criminal proscribed drug trafficking groups in rural regions. Specialised narratives have talked about the subject of drug use, whereas the subject of rural drug trafficking groups has quite frequently been attended to in the press (Ralph et al., 1994). One survey established that countryside youths started abusing both legal and prohibited drugs at a juvenile age and then deflected to criminality. The problem of drug trafficking and manufacture in rural areas is less implicit. Several reports imply that rural areas might act as manufacturing locations for methamphetamine, fashionable drugs, crack, and dagga. Current accounts argue that rural areas have turned out to be significant transshipment ends for drugs intended for towns. The dilemma is aggravated by a developed freeway system and by the huge number of detached airstrips set up for commercial farms and for yield dusters helping rural farmlands (Ralph et al, 1994). In Paddock (Ezinqoleni Municipality, Ugu District), adolescents visiting pubs regularly are known to turn out to be aggressive both at the pubs and when they go back home. Rural adolescents begin imbibing alcohol at a tender age and several of them have been established to be inebriated at school (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2012).

Youth problems are incredibly dissimilar in rural neighbourhoods than they are inside cities. Whereas the reasons for youth crime possibly will be comparable, a lot of risk dynamics for youth transgressions are not as good as in rural districts. For instance, school turnout, graduation pace, and youth service have a propensity to be lesser the further remote the locale. There is furthermore smaller amount of leisure alternatives for adolescents in rural regions (for example shopping centres, movies, and sport amenities and so on) and a deficiency of communal transportation to go to these activities in towns (Barclay et al., 2007).

2.4.4 Geographic isolation

An additional reason of offences in rural areas is the detachment that exists between communities and the criminal justice structure created by geographic remoteness (Shihadeh et al., 1996). The consequences of natural features single-handedly create grave predicaments for rural justice and have a bearing on reaction moments and the pace with which support services can be offered. A research by Shihadeh et al. (1996) suggested that the murder rate in rural areas is high, and access to medicinal cure in these areas and town regions is poles apart, even if the aggressive act is identical in comparison. Likewise, rural police officers can wait for a lengthy time for support. Geographic remoteness may be a fussy dilemma for a lot of rural police officers who patrol single-handedly and whose dealings with suspects have no eyewitnesses. The huge spatial areas wrapped by several rural laws enforcements also create responding to calls additionally costly and further time consuming than in towns (Ralph et al., 1994).

2.4.5 Education and training

Education and training is a subject of significant meaning for rural adolescence. Absence of skills and the chance for training are the main grounds for increasing joblessness. Fraser (2011) observed that education altitudes are lesser, and prospects are less in the rural areas of all nations. The little education and training accessible is frequently adjusted to urban existence, to such an extent that it merely performs as an additional inducement to drift to the urban areas. Youthful women are particularly liable to experience prejudiced customs and traditions. Rural adolescent women in all nations obtain a lesser amount of education than youthful men and fewer chances for professional training.

Proper education in rural areas has not yet reached the complete school going age populace and is chiefly limited to the primary level (Leadbeater et al., 2008). Whereas improvement has been attained in increasing enrolment pace at all echelons, precedence has reallocated from the

prominence on secondary and higher education to attention on primary and informal education. Stress has been put on attaining out-of-school rural adolescence through actions in unofficial education to attain a speedy movement of expertise and appropriate acquaintance.

Though the African governments apportion approximately 20 % of their public expenses to education, the fast pace of populace increases and amplification in total figures of the school-going people, mainly in rural areas, progressively offset these endeavours (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2012). The modification in precedence to primary and informal learning has been swayed by mounting idleness amongst the educated youth, a predicament which appeared in the wake of slash backs in public segment service.

Rising withdrawal rates at all stages and the fondness amongst other educated countryside youth for town-based employment in industrialised or services zones have been partially connected with the limited bearing of contents and processes of education to societal and economic wants in Africa (Shihadeh et al, 2006). Current restructurings of the education system are as a result intended at acclimatising formal education to social and financial requirements with stress on the need for essential education to train children and youth to take a creative responsibility inside their communities. Whilst substantial development has been attained, educational restructuring has not kept speed with the necessities of rural young folks (Kmet et al., 2003). A shared worldwide predisposition has been the normally deforming consequences of a shortage of careers in the labour marketplace. As additional young individuals obtain the mandatory requirements for jobs, the amount of these occupations does not rise congruently. The answer for a lot of companies has been to increasingly lift the learning requirements for the post in question.

The harmful consequence is that young individuals who have just obtained some amount of education are muscled out of the employment marketplace by others who have an advanced education and have to transfer to jobs of an inferior status (Booth et al., 2000). There has been a common downhill movement in which the least grades, those with embryonic education, are shoved out of the official employment marketplace. This has a predominantly unconstructive result on the youth from a lot of rural schools. The decrease in official sector occupational opportunities in several nations throughout current times has principally impinged on the comparatively exceedingly educated youth.

Attempts to increase occupational training and education to rural areas have guided the establishment of "Vocational Training Centres" in various African nations (Kmet et al., 2003).

A large amount of the substance of the teaching completed at these hubs nevertheless, has so far been of a specific character not well-matched to organizing rural youth to accomplish something in farming or current countryside-based economic activities in rural Africa. Education for self-employment has also obtained increasing consideration, although with additional incomplete achievement. In several cases, the purpose of running somebody's business has surpassed the requirement to be self-dependent. Little, bucolic non-farm production as well as manufacturing expansion are required in the confined communities to sustain the rural manufacturer.

A lot of schemes in Africa in current times have been expanded to teach rural adolescence in management, private enterprise, and self-service. Coaching for self-service is on the other hand complicated and dreadfully time intense and cannot be looked upon as the chief plan for decrease of youth joblessness (Booth et al., 2000). Not all youthful individuals could run a thriving miniature arable farm or workshop and whereas school leavers are largely worried with contemporary salaried service, they are doubtful to settle rapidly and interested in self-employment. Booth et al. (2000) argued that the chief difficulty with expertise teaching in schools and bucolic expansion has been that everything other than official secondary education has been believed to be low importance and is not supported by parents or even the youthful people themselves. Several village based proficiency training curriculums are now increasing fame, nevertheless, and are commencing to be considered as a kind of progressing education.

2.4.6 Availability of Guns

Summarizing much of the literature on guns, Wright et al. (2003) observed that gun ownership was much more prevalent in rural areas. In large cities about 27 % of residents own gun, but in rural areas more than 75 % of citizens are gun owners. While many of the rural gun owners are hunters who use rifles, the %age of citizens owning handguns is also higher in rural areas than in central cities (23 % vs. 15 %). It is sometimes assumed that the availability of guns is directly related to gun-related violence, but the case of rural areas shows that the relationship is far more complex. Ironically, rural residents may be the most likely to own guns, but they are also least likely to use guns in the commission of crimes. Bordua and Lizotte (1979) found that crime was lowest in counties with the highest rates of legal firearm ownership. Similarly, a 1990 report by the Bureau of Justice Statistics found that the rate of crimes committed with handguns was more than three times as great in urban areas – 5.9 per 100,000 in central cities versus 1.7 per 100,000 in nonmetropolitan areas (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1990). Similarly, the National Crime Survey (NCS) reports that in cities 37 % of rapes are committed with a

handgun, compared with only 14 % of rapes in rural areas (Bachman, 1992). Urban and rural areas are more similar regarding the use of handguns in robberies, but rural %ages are still lower (Weisheit, Wells and Falcone, 2005).

Gun violence is of great concern in South Africa. Some studies have shown that more people are dying each year from gunshots than from vehicle collisions. An important approach in reducing the number of firearms in society and changing people's attitudes and behaviour towards firearms has been the Gun Free Zone (GFZ) strategy. GFZs are spaces in which firearms are not permitted. They include schools, places of worship and government premises. Overall, the process of declaring GFZs is a powerful social crime prevention tool. Rural areas would benefit from a greater roll-out of GFZs (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010).

2.5 Nature of rural crimes

Figure 2.2 shows the nature of crimes observed in rural areas. These are discussed individually below.



Figure 2.2 Crimes common in rural areas

2.5.1 Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is widespread in towns, but the significant characteristic of rural areas (moderately small figure of people residing in a somewhat broad district) generates several challenges for sufferers of domestic violence, who are in most cases women (DeKeseredy and Schwartz, 2009). Women frequently discover that it is hard to obtain assistance or to run away

from their tormentors everywhere they reside. Rural law enforcement agents may possibly be not aware of domestic violence and can yet be on familiar terms with the abuser and for whichever above-mentioned motive, they might not regard his violence as a crime. Added to the above, mistreated women are sometimes hesitant to inform the police regarding their mistreatment.

Moreover, it is difficult to provide an overview of crimes against rural women due to the high level of under-reporting. Much of these crimes occur in the home. Gender inequalities contribute significantly towards violence against women. In rural areas, marital status, economic dependence on husbands or live-in partners, illiteracy, acceptance of violence as a form of discipline, limited job opportunities, absence of safe houses and non-availability of transport to a police station all place women in a vulnerable position. It is believed that in the long term, the resolution of the crime problems faced by women requires both economic development to end women's vulnerability and dependence, as well as the development of democracy and the spread of egalitarian values into all spheres of daily life

Domestic violence happens in rural dwellings as it also does in abodes in the towns. Fraser (2011) posited that the victims of rural domestic violence are a long distance from getting help as compared to those in the city and are often short of transport to reach sanctuary or psychotherapy provisions in the town. Due to the 'tight-knit' existence of the rural areas, sufferers may be uncomfortable to articulate out regarding the mistreatment for fear of retaliation from the abusers' friends or family (Wendt, 2009 in Fraser, 2011). Guns are also a major factor in domestic violence in rural areas. In a research performed in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, Hornosty and Doherty (2007) found out that 66% of physically abused women who lived in homes holding guns revealed that the firearms made them more apprehensive for their security and comfort.

A research by Coker and Richter (2008) in Sierra Leone established that 66% of the females who were investigated accounted that they had been abused by their husbands or fiancés, and 50% reported they had been strained to have sexual copulation in opposition to their willpower. High incidences of substantial violence have likewise been made in South Africa by Jewkes et al. (2001), Uganda by Blanc et al. (1996), and Zimbabwe by Watts et al. (2008).

An additional predicament concerns the accessibility of beaten women's sanctuaries, which offer priceless services for ill-treated women and some kids they might have. These sanctuaries tend to be established in towns. Rural areas normally are short of sanctuaries, and any

sanctuaries that are present are regularly long distances from the houses of ill-treated women. In rural regions, ill-treated women are in addition more prone than their urban equivalents to be short of neighbors and acquaintances to which they can go for support, or at slightest to live out of reach of these individuals. For all these causes, rural women who experience domestic violence have a difficulty that has been described as “dangerous exits” (DeKeseredy and Schwartz, 2009).

Because of the configuration and financial conditions of countryside neighborhoods and families, a lot of sufferers are powerless to break away from their phases of violence owing to their economic reliance on the people who persecute them (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2012). The precise exercise of witch eradication and witch-hunting take the types of expulsion, physical attack, and execution. More frequently than not, the sufferers are females, while the architects are youthful men (ODC Country Profile, 2004).

DeKeseredy (2015) claimed that virtually all studies of rural woman abuse have gathered data primarily from women. Undeniably, due to social desirability effects and other factors, listening to women's voices and inviting them to fill out surveys uncovers higher estimates of any type of violence against women than those derived from self-report surveys administered to men (DeKeseredy et al., 2004; Jacquier et al., 2011; DeKeseredy and Rennison, 2013). Nevertheless, the feminist research community is now at the point where it can confidently state that an alarmingly high number of rural women are victimized in private places and hence it is time to use some different techniques to yield better answers to some theoretically important questions, such as “Why Does He Do That?” (Bancroft, 2002). This is not to assert, though, that interviewing women or administering surveys to them does not help achieve this goal. They do, and an international body of scholarship shows that data gleaned from women generate some rich information on the characteristics of the men who abused them. Still, interviews with men are in short supply and so are self-report surveys administered to men. Such methods will tell us much about what drives them to be abusive and enable researchers to assess the explanatory power of certain theories more effectively, such as the above male peer support perspectives. Several hypotheses derived from them could easily be tested using measures of male peer support developed by DeKeseredy (1988), Smith's (1990) familial patriarchal ideology items, and other quantitative items. Regardless of which methods are employed, research on men is necessary because much insight is gained through invading and carefully studying the social constructions of men who abuse current and former female partners (Scully, 1990).

2.5.2 Livestock theft

Rural communities look upon domestic animals as “living wealth”, and are habitually their lone basis of revenue and sustenance. Consequently, when their domestic animals are stolen a lot of families and subsistence cultivators lose their source of revenues. However, the farmers are amongst the many who endure accounts of livestock theft; it too has a grave shock on for profit pastoralists, and thus the beef business. In Free State 2011, livestock theft was acknowledged a main concern crime. It was exposed that it was difficult to regulate livestock theft, as it frequently meant extensive time used up in the countryside, lingering for livestock thieves. Geldenhuys (2012) observed that, besides the exploration of livestock theft cases, Stock Theft Units (STUs) furthermore must deal with current problems, plus finding wandering animals, and supporting in quarrels over rights and branding. Additionally, it is believed that livestock theft is the most generally significant challenge faced by resource-deprived farmers, with the possibility of crippling their livelihoods (Greyling, 2007).

Livestock theft supposedly not only obliterates high prospective genetic substance, but also make threats to the nation's food safety, rendering its beef industry globally uncompetitive, and adversely impacting subsidiary industries. It is deduced that unravelling the difficulty would craft an enormous input to the nation's self-sufficiency. Additionally, the livestock theft signs for the annual period 2010- 2011 reveal that stealing of cattle evened out, whereas the numbers for recovered cattle rose by 6%. Stealing of sheep also stayed constant, contrasted to the preceding year, whereas 4% fewer sheep were found (Maré and Schutte, 2012). According to Clack (2016) 42.95% of cattle stolen were found and 57.05% were missing and never found, and the speed of recovery is too much high for cattle as contrasted to sheep. In South Africa in the era 2001-2002, the sum worth of R77 millions of stolen livestock was recovered.

South Africa's rural areas are vast and remote making the tracking of stolen stock difficult and the movement of stock problematic to detect. Most KwaZulu-Natal rural areas experience the stealing of livestock. Stock thieves operating in South Africa operate in organized networks that invariably involve local criminals. The DCSL has published research which offers guidelines for community actions to prevent stock theft (KZN department of community safety and liaison, 2010). Communities have an important role to play in ensuring that fences are in place and in a good state, that stock is properly marked and that cases are reported timeously. They should also inform investigators if stock is recovered. The lack of impounding facilities makes it difficult to confiscate stock from suspected stock thieves.

2.5.3 Crime over land

Tucker (2015) posited that the industrialization of agriculture and related scientific progress in farm equipment has made farming processes and their enormous collection of costly apparatus and provisions more eye-catching objects for burglary by controlled crime syndicates. Well-built farms, processes close to well-travelled motorway systems and those nearer to big urban areas or metropolis are more probable to experience a transgression, particularly theft. Given that a huge figure of farmers owns guns, assaults are frequently intended at acquiring these weapons. Clashes over communal land, livestock theft and abuses of people's rights have as well blown up into completely gust communal conflicts such as happened in Charlestown and Utrecht (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2012).

2.5.4 Violence

Rural citizens habitually resort to violence as a type of communication and consider that violence resolves predicaments though the reverse is accurate since violence merely ends in criminality. Additionally, the life of rural interfaces denotes that crimes such as stabbing, rape, and battering are more prone to happen amongst associates (Shihadeh et al., 1996). This, coalesced with the bigger doubt of government, could also signify that the law enforcement is less expected to be called when the offences occur. Given these aspects, both examining and thwarting violent inter-personal offences in bucolic areas may necessitate diverse approaches than in towns. The accessibility of firearms is an additional issue that causes crime in communal areas since more guns denotes further crime. It has been surveyed that gun possession is a lot more widespread in rural neighborhoods where more than twofold the figure of dwellers possessed guns. Whilst most of the communal gun possessors are huntsmen who utilize rifles or 'shotguns', the proportion of residents possessing pistols has as well has been high in rural regions than in inner cities (23% against 15%). It is occasionally presumed that the accessibility of weaponry is related to handgun-related violence; although the case of communal areas illustrates that the connection is far more multifaceted.

In relation to the issue of violence, though less well documented, are the so-called "hate groups" in rural areas. Many of these groups are based on a combination of anti-Semitism, racism, fundamentalist Christianity, and deep suspicion of government (Coates, 1987). Most of the crimes discussed thus far (for example homicide and rape) occur in both rural and urban areas. Some crimes, however, are peculiar to the rural setting. For example, rest-stop crimes and crimes related to the presence of interstate highways are both growing concerns. In addition, special rural crimes include wildlife and agricultural crimes (Muhammad, 2002).

According to Dugard (2001), there are taxi wars which occur in South Africa and are rooted in the apartheid system, and go back many years ago. Taxi violence in the late-apartheid was heavily saturated with transition politics. Crimes in rural communities involve taxi violence. Taxi owners fight between themselves and sometimes fight with passengers even. Sometimes taxis are being stopped from transporting people. This affect people who must take taxis to work every day, learners who take taxis to school because there is only one school in the area and it is very far from their homes. Even those learners who walk to schools are being affected if taxis are not working because most teachers are not from the area and they use taxis to come to school. If taxis are not working it means that educators will not come to school (Dugard, 2001).

2.5.5 Cultural traditions

Some cultural traditions are tantamount to criminal activities in rural Africa. A case in point is the ukuthwala system in South Africa. The modus operandi for ukuthwala is when a planning bridegroom, accompanied by friends, will intercept the proposed bride in the environs of her personal residence, pretty frequently belatedly in the daylight hours, just before sundown or at in the early hours and they will "against her will" seize the supposed bride to the youthful man's dwelling. Occasionally the girl is trapped by surprise, but in several cases, she is "trapped" according to arrangement and conformity. In whichever case, she might raise a demonstration of a fight to imply to witnesses that it is all not in favour of her needs when it is barely fantastic. However, in 2009 the Minister of Police, Mr. Nathi Mthethwa criticised the African tradition of ukuthwala as "presently straightforward person trafficking" (Van der Watt and Ovens, 2012). The warped custom of ukuthwala could result in trafficking. Ndukuya (2006) in Van der Watt and Ovens (2012) posited that contemporary adolescent traffickers in the country can be separated into three groups: persons who snatch a kid for their personal wants; poor communities that unintentionally send off their kids into oppression out of fear, and child-trafficking groups that kidnap kids or buy them to resell.

Van der Watt and Ovens (2012) argue that Ukuthwala adds to kids being compared to merchandise who are purchased by the person responsible for the abduction to serve a selfish intention. Sufferers are then told again that they were bought for a fee and therefore 'possessed' by their latest 'spouse'. For the sufferer this ends in a condition very parallel to that of arrears burden. Maluleke (2009) observed that the effect of this custom on the teenage girl comprises wellbeing matters such as HIV, STIs and pregnancy associated problems.

Talbot (2011) observed that in rural communities, the most rapidly emerging in political terms is linked to both migrant populations and Human Trafficking. The majority of those trafficked are exploited within labour markets and for the purposes of sexual exploitation. Rural communities are not exempt from trafficking concerns. Labor market exploitation is commonly linked to rural and agricultural work both on land and at sea. This trend has also been documented within the US where it has been found that both labor and sexual exploitation issues exist within rural communities in different guises (Tucker, 2015).

2.5.6 Wildlife Crime

Wildlife crime is deemed to be more of a truly rural concern. Wildlife crimes, specifically poaching, are of growing concern globally. In the UK it has been estimated that 44% of all wildlife crime reports from across the UK provided to the National Wildlife Crime Unit (NCWU, 2014) relate to 'poaching intelligence', including the poaching of deer, fish and game and hare coursing. Violent, organized gangs are increasingly infiltrating poaching due to the profits of large-scale slaughter. This not only has an impact on the wildlife but also on the legitimacy of food entering our food chain. Increasingly 'meat scandals' are becoming evident both globally and locally, reports involving Welsh farmers in the horsemeat scandal (Wales Online, 2003) and following the selling of unfit meats by a Welsh Farmer to food establishments (South Wales Argus, 2013).

Firearms add to offences such as nature offences which are comparable to agricultural crimes. Wildlife offences are principally a rural experience. Wildlife crimes, particularly poaching, have developed into a main worry for preservation police officers (Shihadeh et al., 1996). Many countryside inhabitants have poached to make available foodstuff for themselves and their relatives, whilst others have derived pleasure on merely slaughtering a wildlife "trophy." It was established that poaching was thrilling and was perceived as an assessment of intelligence and dexterity involving the rustler and the game steward (Shihadeh et al., 1996). A lot of poachers were pompous that they might effortlessly outwit the technology and multifaceted contemporary tactics of the game steward. Poachers may recognize that the nature of their activities, and the large caliber weapons carried by game wardens, can lead to violent confrontations, but for some the inherent danger only adds to the excitement. As Forsyth and Marckese (1993) examined that these men saw poaching as a very rough game. They took pride in being tough enough to participate in it and being successful in evading the law.

Moreover, the most disturbing trend has been the horrific increase in poaching of rhinos in South Africa. Prior to 2006, illegal killing of rhinos was being maintained at consistently low levels. Since 2008, rhino poaching in South Africa has skyrocketed year on year, culminating in a total of 448 rhinos killed in 2011 (Shaw, 2011). The face of rhino poaching has also changed, with trusted wildlife industry professionals adding to the ranks of the more traditional poaching demographic. Unfortunately, there is no indication that the rhino poaching crisis is coming under control, as rhino deaths continue apace despite the government responses to combat poaching, including the deployment of Army personnel along the border between Kruger National Park and Mozambique (Shaw, 2011).

2.5.7 Child abuse

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison (2012) posit that the problem of crimes against children in rural areas is under-researched and very little information is therefore available to inform appropriate rural child protection programs. Much work needs to be done to determine whether there are factors present in rural communities that may contribute to the increased vulnerability of rural children to being victimized. What is known however is that crimes committed against children in rural areas is hidden and does not come to the attention of outsiders.

The main reasons are:

- The absence of resources – both State and civil society – to enable children to report crimes and receive assistance;
- The social and structural factors that make it difficult for children to report crimes committed by adults whom they know.

Apart from awareness work, very little direct preventative work can be done with children because a vast proportion of crimes against children occur in the private domestic sphere and in their peer-group interactions. The lack of parental supervision, poverty, early motherhood and cycles of violence generated through domestic violence are believed to lead to insecurity among children.

Sexual-abuse of rural children occurs because of the powerlessness and poverty of rural children within the context of the socio-economic challenges facing rural areas. It is believed that the structure of the rural family accentuates the sexual abuse of rural girls, with young men not receiving adequate guidance as they mature, particularly in relation to gender relations and

their own sexuality. The school is unfortunately also a site of much of the sexual violence against girls with many girls being raped, sexually abused, assaulted and harassed by teachers and their fellow classmates.

The impacts of sexual crimes on children include isolation from their peers, often leading to depression, and lower quality of their own parenting later in life. Rural child victims are much more likely to succumb to these impacts given the lack of therapeutic services available to rural victims and they are more prone to secondary victimization during investigations and trials since police stations and courts in rural areas often lack the infrastructure to protect children.

Most rural children still walk long distances to school and networks to respond to child abuse, neglect and exploitation need to be strengthened in rural areas. Many children are often unaware that acts committed against them are, in fact, crimes. Factors that restrict children's access to justice include instances where the perpetrator is the family breadwinner or authority figure, and where there simply are no resources to access service providers.

There are reports of illegal child labor occurring where many children work both in formal and informal agriculture as a form of bonded labor for the 'privilege' of staying on a farm. The Constitution provides that children under 18 have a right to be protected from work that is exploitative, hazardous, or otherwise inappropriate for their age, detrimental to their schooling, or detrimental to their social, physical, mental, spiritual, or moral development. According to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, it is a criminal offence to employ a child under the age of 15, except if you have a permit from the Department of Labor to employ children in the performing arts. Further, children aged 15 to 18 may not be employed to do work inappropriate for their age or work that places them at risk.

2.6 Effects of rural crime

While the immediate effect of crime is usually felt by the individual upon whom the crime was committed, the community at large is also affected by criminal activity. High crime rates may lead to population reduction as able individuals move away to avoid victimization. Members who remain in crime-filled areas may feel unsafe in general, particularly if they witness crime. Additionally, crime rates create a negative impression about a community to those who live outside it.

2.6.1 Financial impact of crime on rural economy is significant

According to the National Rural Crime Network (2015), “the price of crime to rural communities in the UK is £800 million, equivalent to £200 for every household in the countryside.” The typical cost to families who are sufferers of crime is £2500 and it is £4100 for communal entrepreneurs. National Rural Crime Network (2015) survey revealed that only 26% of homes that experienced a loss made an indemnity declaration. Among countryside companies the number was 32%, to offset their losses and these had a propensity to be connected to momentous losses such as that of farming equipment or theft of assets. On standard insurance declarations only went as far as 80% of the actual asking price of offence because of issues like assets mending, revamped security, loss of income, legal charges, and elevated insurance payments after a declaration (National Rural Crime Network, 2015).

For entrepreneurs who run companies inside communal areas, 86% of victims of transgression suffered some sort of monetary loss:

- Typically, the loss amounted to £4,100.
- Average losses following any insurance resolutions amounted to £2,600.
- Barely 32% of those sustaining monetary charges completed an insurance declaration.
- Entrepreneurs who had the ability to claim on cover were at rest merely able to recoup approximately 60% of the losses on standard.

Insurance and related statistics estimate that in 2012 rural crime cost the UK £43.2 million (NFU, 2012). High levels of crime pose a serious threat to rural communities. Apart from tragic loss of life, crimes such as robbery, theft and hijacking deprive rural dwellers of their meagre possessions. At a more macro level, rural crime impacts on food security creating a risk for the overall developmental prospects of the country.

Aggravated by insufficient communal transport, the stealing of a car can also excessively influence rural victims because a lot of these casualties will depend on their cars for work. This has likely repercussions for the local financial system. In miniature areas, Williams (1999) suggested that even a thievery from a telephone box may cause unbalanced difficulty and anxiety in bucolic areas if this ends in it being inactive, since it may be the only phone box in the area. Ominously maybe for the criminal, this additional problem may also end in an additional harsh judgment being approved by a country magistrate, contrasted to that specified for a similar crime in a city area.

2.6.2 Rural sensitivities and apprehension of crime

Many rural people, whether they are sufferers of crime or not, just dread the likelihood of crime and this is likely to have a harmful consequence on their quality of being. Williams et al., (2000) suggested that trepidation of crime has the possibility for bigger injury than concrete victimization owing to the consequence of long-term strain. Communal regions can be hushed, dim and comparatively deserted. It can be hypothesized that all these aspects might add to logic of defenselessness and nervousness. This led Lawtley and Deane (2000) to speculate that dread of crime in communal regions could be advanced than in city areas, regardless of the reality that crime intensities are lesser.

Authors have engaged in substantial discussions as to how fear of crime should be conceptualized and calculated (Farrall, Bannister, Ditton, and Gilchrist, 1997; Jackson, 2004; and Williams et al., 2000). For instance, differences have been made linking fear of precise crime categories and a ‘free-floating’ universal worry of victimization (Ferraro and LaGrange, 1987). Williams et al. (2000) argued that the phrase ‘dread of transgression’ may best be substituted by the phrase ‘concern regarding ill-treatment’ pending an agreement to be attained on what ‘dread of transgression’ really involves. Individuals can dread something a great deal yet if they view the probability of it happening is slender. Nonetheless, though not completely connected, it appears sensible to presume that individuals’ discernment of the possibility of ill-treatment adds in some manner to a human being’s sentiments of terror and apprehension and subsequently their value of being.

Anderson (1997) argued that nervousness concerning crime may have depressing results on conduct: sentiments of uncertainty are amplified, citizens’ sense of happiness and the quality of being are battered, liberty of association turns out to be limited and self-protective and cautious conduct amplifies. In South Africa, possibly the largely grave result of dread of transgression and the discernment that the court system is useless is the prevalent support for ‘substitute’ types of “justice and vigilante” movements. Connected to this phenomenon has been a solidifying of feelings against criminal justice confirmed in “support for the death penalty and for harsh sentences.” Where sentiments of uncertainty and displeasure with the criminal justice structure are higher, it becomes extra hard to initiate extended term instruments intended at sinking the cause of crime. The community is additionally probable to shore up immediate, high profile policing type involvements.

2.6.3 Social arrangement and cultural impacts

Williams (1999) maintained that in cohesive societies, it has been hypothesized that women might dread exclusion if they speak out regarding male violence. In total, adjacent rural inhabitants might have an elevated acceptance of some actions such as ethnic persecution and unsociable conduct due to a customary inclination for societies in rural regions to stay with one's own advice (Williams, 1999). This may be particularly relevant in cases of family violence in neighborhoods where a customary submission to spouses exists and a sentiment subsists that predicaments must be kept inside the family (Derounian, 1993). Communal segregation can generate additional predicaments, for instance the seeming lack of secrecy in communal locales and the resulting concern of privacy. Williams (1999) observed that it may be very hard for women in bucolic areas to still call the specialist's hospital. Henderson (1998) maintained that a comparable lack of observed secrecy leads to drug abusers dreading detection when looking for help. Dhalech, (1999) argued that societal segregation may be mainly difficult for racial minority groups. This results in a lack of self-confidence when trying to find counsel and advice, and in detailing racial discrimination and ill-treatment. It can be observed how a lot of these problems might lead to troubles in communal areas staying un-reported (Marshall and Johnson, 2005).

2.7 Measures to combat crimes in rural areas

There are diverse advances to crime deterrence that are practical to rural regions that comprises Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED) with a focal point on the preparation an infrastructure of communes to stop crime. Instances in the rural situations might consist of installing movement sensor illumination on storage places to shed light on prospective criminals or designing farm kit storeroom areas in sight of the residence. Crime Prevention through Social Development (CPSD) entails an amount of diverse strategies, as well as society development, school-based deterrence, public education crusades, and developmental anticipation (for example early childhood intercessions). Situational Prevention engages growing the risks and dropping the incentives of executing precise crimes. Cases in the rural situation may consist of marking farm apparatus with a classification digit so it may not be simply sold or upholding meticulous record catalogues to rapidly recognize if something has been stolen (Bull, 2007).

It has been suggested as an advance that rural people have a significant responsibility to play in guaranteeing that barriers are in position and in excellent condition, that livestock is correctly marked and that offences are reported in time. Villagers ought to also notify the police if livestock is recovered. The deficiency of confiscation services makes it hard to recover livestock from alleged stock thieves.

Neighborhood watch programs are a kind of circumstantial crime deterrent meant to decrease the dangers of criminal action. A lot of rural neighborhoods have village or neighborhood unions that appoint neighborhood watch committees. These assemblages are composed of persons with a deep interest in the bucolic community: inhabitants, company owners, and chalet proprietors, for instance. The aims of these associations are to decrease the chance for misdemeanors to happen by getting better security training, employing community surveillance, taking part in crime anticipation consciousness programs, and assisting contact between inhabitants and the law enforcement.

Policing in communal regions typically involves several varieties of neighbourhood policing. A research by Jobes (2003) in Australia established that several police officers are of the view that policing in pastoral districts is an “impracticable job.” Problems police officers faced by policing in rural districts branched from the populace’s acceptance of certain crimes (for example inebriated or juvenile individuals just “boasting a good quality time”) and their deficient of collaboration with the law enforcement. The largely efficient police bureaucrats in this communal area used customary community law enforcement: police officers mixed themselves into the neighbourhood and used their judgement when it comes to society yardsticks of actions (Jobes, 2003).

In Western Australia, an additional approach to communal policing, obtained from the Rural Crime Prevention Strategy is a multi-organisation approach. This multi-organisation approach connects law enforcement officers, diverse government subdivisions, rural-based agency, private organisations, and unpaid helpers to police bucolic communities. In one research of this approach, Yarwood (2007) found that multi-organisation policing has the possibility to be an extra all-encompassing type of law enforcement, although the state still largely drives it.

Circumstantial deterrence programmes in the communal situation are based on sinking the chances for crime to transpire (Mears, Scott, and Bhati, 2007). In an American research of ranch theft by Mears et al., (2007), the researchers hypothesised that more eye-catching farms will be broken into frequently, crime persecution will be further probable when farm processes

are close to would-be offenders, as well as further bare and not as much of being fortified. The researchers revealed that objects that are effortlessly movable were generally prone to be stolen. They also established that plots on level topographies and with a huge land experienced more offence occurrence. Ultimately, farms that do not make use of safety methods (for example padlocking or hiding utensils), employed conventional defensive methods (for example possessing a dog), or anywhere owners were not as much capable to observe or check their possessions were more probable to experience thefts. Suggestions for deterrence consist of increasing the defence of farm structures and paraphernalia, generating a central catalogue of classification statistics for farm apparatus, and countryside “hot spot” law enforcement where susceptible regions obtain hands-on law enforcement and crime deterrence programmes (Mears et al., 2007).

Although the instantaneous result of crime is typically experienced by the person upon whom the offence was perpetrated, the district is as well distressed by illicit action. Soaring crime paces might lead to populace decrease as capable persons travel away to keep away from victimisation. People who stay behind in crime-infested neighbourhoods may feel insecure, predominantly if they eyewitness crime. In addition, felony rates generate a negative feeling regarding a neighbourhood to folks who reside external to it.

Everybody can assist to teach kids and adolescents on the hazards of illicit drugs and alcohol. The 2012 research circulated by the Maine Rural Health Research Centre proposed that, primarily, parental control is a shielding aspect against alcohol misuse. There are programmes to assist, not simply parents, but learning centres, cathedrals, and other associations who desire to put an effort on youth to dispirit them against misusing drugs and alcohol. Family-centred deterrence programmes work to get better information and talents of children and parents connected to drug abuse, over and above the contact inside the family. For example, the Strong African American Families–Teen programme, applied in communal Georgia, was flourishing and less expensive in its undertaking to keep rural youth connected in school and away from drugs and alcohol. Schools can take part in disheartening youth from abusing drugs and alcohol. Schools offer a steady and helpful atmosphere for learners to feel heeded for by educators and personnel. Kids who are thriving in school are not as much as probable to drink alcohol. Countryside church and faith-based associations are capable of also playing a significant function in supporting drug abuse deterrence. Rural young people are more apt to contribute to planned church-linked occasions and might profit from deeds centred on drug abuse deterrence.

2.7.1 Possible measures to combat rural crime in South Africa

The security of communal areas in South Africa appeared under severe examination in 1998 at the Rural Safety Summit. The Summit ended in the approval of ten declarations and directed eventually to the growth and execution of the Rural Protection Plan (RPP). Through the RPP, the state dedicated itself to sustained enhancement of security of rural areas as well as sufficient financial support and coordination in the function and implementation of the Criminal Justice System to guarantee an efficient structure of prevention (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2012). Leisure facilities, mainly for countryside youth, must be prioritised.

2.7.2 South African National Rural Safety Strategy (NRSS)

The intention of NRSS is to offer direction and parameters to attain protection and safety in the rural surroundings. South African law enforcement members should be reinforced by sufficient assets and reservists as strength multipliers must be on hand to sustain the formation of a protected bucolic community. Encourage and engage all task dramatis personae and stakeholders in an incorporated and synchronised way to prop up advanced convenience and facility delivery to the communal neighbourhood. The NRSS aims at creating neighbourhood consciousness and cultivating the countryside community in conditions of safety and security matters (leaflets, placards, brochures, neighbourhood programmes and development plans). Certain kinds of transgression can be dealt with by changing the surroundings in which they happen. The surroundings can be premeditated, calculated, and directed in a technique that it necessitates more exertion from possible crooks to lug out their illegal actions.

Maluleke et al., (2015) suggested several measures to combat rural crime in South Africa. They posited that the neighbourhood SAPS, at constabulary station stage, and outpost divisions, to some extent, must be persuaded to contribute to, and synchronise, their intelligence gathering and investigation abilities better, and set up an amalgamated tactical analysis of the livestock theft organisations menace. Satellite law enforcement posts at known areas ought to be formed, and law enforcement officials must investigate livestock theft reports painstakingly, and apprehend suspects. Qualified examiners must work directly with the greenhorns to take them to the court, and these officers must be getting additional cars, and extra instruction. Public instructive consciousness crusades, and school courses, must be brought up as well. In addition, to get justice to the populace, expert livestock theft branches must be put in place in the rural areas in addition to the Magistrates' Court. The law enforcement must be furnished with choppers, stallions, cars, quad bikes, and stock proprietors and shepherds must get cell phones

for reporting livestock theft offences promptly. This will be intended at convalescing reaction times and effectiveness, and diminish reporting charges on stock owners, village constituents, and erstwhile appropriate parties. Thus, efficient reporting methods, and objective reporting at constabulary stations and outpost divisions, must be encouraged (Maluleke et al., 2015)

2.7.3 A national campaign to change attitudes toward violence and tolerance of violent behaviour

Osofsky (1995) advocates that in the United States, a public stance should be taken by politicians, policymakers, media leaders and citizens to indicate that violence and crime is socially unacceptable and contradicts America's societal emphasis on humane values, responsibility, and respect for the rights of others. He maintains that the media contribute to the problem of children and youth violence by glamorising violence, thereby encouraging involvement in violent activities. Therefore, the cooperation of television and the media needs to be changed, the image of violence in American society from an acceptable and even admirable quality to one that is disdained without tolerance.

2.7.4 A family-centred and community-centred approach that builds on strengths within communities is needed

The encouragement and facilitation of community empowerment and self-determination programs are needed to address the issue of crime prevention (Osofsky et.al, 1995). As part of crime prevention initiative, education, job opportunities and increased family and community support should be provided to youth and children. Finkelhor and Dziuba-Leatherman (1994) suggest community and family-centred programmes, including churches, schools and other community-based institutions should address issues of crime prevention. They state that children, parents, and communities require multi-institutional support to cope with rural crime

Other researchers suggest that safe homes and neighbourhoods for children and families need to be created and maintained (Whitman, 2007). The coordinated efforts of both communities and law enforcement agencies are required to make neighbourhoods, schools, and playgrounds safe (Osofsky, 1995). Support is needed to build partnerships between child and family services, education, and law enforcement agencies to support parents and families who are both victims of and witnesses to violence in their communities.

2.7.5 One-Stop-Centres to Combat Gender Based Violence in Rural areas

An important development to prevent 'secondary victimisation' within the criminal justice system (CJS) has been the establishment of One-Stop-Centres. At these centres, usually located

in a medical facility, all relevant professionals (police, medical practitioner and counsellor) see survivors at a single, non-threatening venue. This enables the survivor to relate the incident a minimum number of times and not be expected to travel from one service provider to the next repeating the traumatic ordeal. The service also facilitates coordination between the various CJS agencies thereby avoiding duplication and evidence-handling mistakes. In KZN, these centres are found in urban townships such as Umlazi and Phoenix but still need to be rolled out into rural areas.

2.8 Conclusion

The chapter explored the phenomenon of rural crime as illustrated in various published literature. It provided the empirical definitions of rural areas and associated crimes. Rural crimes in some parts of the world, apart from South Africa, were briefly explained. The chapter also explored the causes and nature of rural crimes both in the developed of developing world. Examples from researches were provided. The effects of rural crime to the community. Lastly the chapter provided possible measures to combat rural crimes.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

“Learning is not attained by chance, it must be sought for with ardour and attended to with diligence.”

Abigail Adams

3.1 Introduction

There are countless phenomena in the field of criminology that would cause one to employ research that is useful in the explanation of the causes and aspects that contribute to crime. Theory can be defined as the model or framework for observation and understanding, which shapes both what we perceive and how we perceive it (Tibbetts, 2009). Theory allows the researcher to make links between the abstract and the concrete; the theoretical and the empirical; thought statements and observational statements. Theory is a generalised statement that asserts a connection between two or more types of phenomena and any generalised explanatory principle. Theory is a system of interconnected abstractions or ideas that condenses and organises knowledge about the world. Additionally, theory explains and predicts the relationship between variables (Tibbetts, 2009). Theory guides research and organises its ideas. Using the analogy of bricks lying around haphazardly in the brickyard, ‘facts’ of different shapes and sizes have no meaning unless they are drawn together in a theoretical or conceptual framework (Tibbetts, 2009). It is against this background that two theories will be employed to guide the current study; Differential association and Strain theory are presented below.

3.2 Differential association theory

In criminology, differential association is a theory developed by Edwin Sutherland (1984), proposing that through interaction with others, individuals learn the values, attitudes, techniques, and motives for criminal behaviour. It simply means that the more contact a person has with people who are already involved in crime, the more likely that person is to engage in criminal activity. This theory can best explain the phenomenon of crime in rural areas (Burgess et al., 1996).

The theory purports that, “the primary associations (priority) that last longer or occupy a disproportionate amount of one’s time (duration), happen the most frequently, and involve the

intimate, closest, or most significant associates/peer groups (intensity) will possible have the greatest influence on an individual's decision to partake in either conforming or non-conforming behaviour" (Sutherland, 1984). (Leighninger et al., 1996), support Sutherland by stating that differential associations differ in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity. Referring to the contact an individual must have with proponents of criminal behaviour; this principle suggests that there is a varying, but direct relationship that affects how often, for what length of time, how important and how intense deviant behaviour occurs (Leighninger et al., 1996).

Furthermore, Akers and Jensen (2006) affirms that once individuals learn criminality or violent behaviours they also learn ways or techniques in which it is done, for example, corporate crimes. Certain behaviours are clarified in terms of their precise motives, drives, rationalisations, and attitudes. A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law over definitions unfavourable to violation of law (Akers and Jensen, 2006). Additionally, (Leighninger et al., 1996) confirms that an individual network more with members of a group who favour nonconformity, than with members of a group who favour societal norms, that person is more motivated to act rebelliously.

Akers and Jensen (2006) also proposed that individuals are vulnerable to pro-criminal and pro-social norms, values, and definitions as well as forms of reinforcement supportive of criminal or pro-social behaviour. The more an individual is associated and open to deviant behaviour and attitudes conveyed by means of his/her primary and secondary peer groups, the greater his/her likelihood is for getting involved in deviant or criminal behaviour. Most of the young people look up to their friends and brothers; they see them as their role models. They then imitate them; gradually following in their path and on their way, they harm those who are of their age as they are also trying to show off. Thus, they end up emulating and living the lives of their role models. This can probably be explicitly explained by the theory of imitation. The theory maintains that observers tend to imitate modelled behaviour if they like or respect the model, see the model receive reinforcement, see the model give off signs of pleasure, or are in an environment where imitating the model's performance is reinforced. Furthermore, an individual's decision to engage in crime or deviance after watching a violent television show for the first time or observing his friends attack another peer for the first time provides the key social context in which imitation can occur.

The principal take of Akers and Jensen's theory is that actions are learned. For example, criminal traits in a family are transmitted from generation to generation, which means that people who have a history of criminality in their family tree are in greater chances of growing up to be criminals or those who have witnessed crime taking place in their families by people in the family that they look up to because it is very easy for minors to imitate their superiors. For example, children who observed or suffered physical family violence when growing up have a greater chance of practising violence the same way they saw it happening. There are also links between those individuals who have been sexually mistreated, particularly boys, abusing other people because they have seen and learned how it is done.

Most rural areas experience high level of crimes because rural communities are usually very low in population density, which means that the level of interaction amongst the community members is very high and people have face-to-face contacts daily. The more members of the community interact with each other, the more they learn each other's behaviours including criminal behaviours. For example, a child that is born into a family where stealing is a norm grows up not knowing that stealing is wrong and punishable (Agnew, 1992). The child starts off with stealing chickens from the neighbour and graduate to bigger crimes. It is usually not easy for rural people to achieve material wealth. Rural conditions are not favourable and that means that rural people must go to bigger cities to better their education, which is also not easy for most families because of poverty. This portrays that there is an imbalance in the emphasis between the goals and means of societies which is what is called anomie. Merton (1958) states that consistent with the age-crime peak of offending is approximately the age of 17, where learning that hard work won't necessarily provide rewards, some individuals decide to innovate ways that they can achieve material success without the conventional means of getting it. This issue often leads to adolescents in rural areas skipping school, flouting school rules and vandalising school property (Greenberg, 1997). After they have quit school they end up getting involved in criminal activities because they have so much free time and that they hang out in tuck shops and on the streets allowing themselves to interact with people who are criminals and putting themselves in the danger of learning criminal behaviours. Those who still go to school suddenly changes their minds about going to school and join the crew that stays in the streets and then the cycle continues, and crime increases.

3.3 Strain theory

Strain theory is a derivative of Emile Durkheim's Anomie Theory, which is the theory of normlessness. The theory was later influenced by other theorists like Comte, Guerry, and Quetelet. In 1957 Robert K Merton further developed it. The theory is amongst the principal theories of crime and so is regularly discussed in textbooks, handbooks, and encyclopaedia dealing with crime theories. The theory states that certain strains or stressors increase the likelihood of crime. These strains lead to undesirable emotions, such as frustration and anger. These emotions generate burden for corrective act, and crime is one probable reaction. Crime may be used to ease or escape from strain, seek revenge against the source of strain or related targets, or alleviate negative emotions. Most people who commit crime in rural areas do so because of strain that the community put on them (Agnew, 1992). The community feel or believes that there are certain things that individuals should have achieved by certain age and that is the reason some people divert to criminality for them to be able to have whatever is expected of them. In most cases, it is socially expected that a man gets married by the age of 30, due to unstable economic conditions, these men find themselves unable to be employed and end up taking alternatives in a form of criminal activities.

There are five different ways an individual under these specific circumstances would adopt. They will conform, innovate, become ritualistic, retreatistic, or rebel against society itself. The conformist would just accept the way how things are and try to achieve success by following the legitimate system of "hard work breeds success." The conformist is the most common type of response to strain and an example of a conformist could be trying to achieve a modest amount of wealth by hard work. The innovator finds a way to achieve success in a deviant or criminal manner. They would break some rules to try to achieve a type of success which is what society insidiously tells everyone to do. An example of an innovator would be a drug dealer or thief. Ritualistic is when an individual gives up in trying to achieve commercial success and tries to just focus (with a hard dedication) to what they already have, or to try to adhere to the rules in a very strict manner. Retreaters would give up in trying to accomplish success and giving up the dreams of achieving any type of success as well. An example of this type of person would be like a hermit. Rebels are against the notion of having success and how to get successful, but they would want to replace the system (of trying to achieve the "American Dream") with something else.

These mentioned adaptations are what determine the types of criminals that might exist in a specific area. For example, members of rural areas are innovationists because they greatly desire the conventional goal of material success but are not willing to engage in conventional means. Most of them do not want to go to school but they want to live luxurious lives. They do not want to work hard yet they want to achieve the socially accepted goals. They choose the easy way out, which is crime.

Strain theory was a great success in the 1960's, but even though a portion of scholars do not denote to it as the number one theory any longer, it shows relevance as to why it works particularly in the social programs which it provides. Society cannot function if individuals are being told to achieve one thing, yet it is nearly difficult or impossible to do. Today, it is difficult for somebody to move up in social class. Typically, the socio-economic class ones' parents are is the one someone will stay in for the rest of their life. Strain theory is one of the social theories as to why criminals commit crimes and even if there are more than just societal issues as to why criminals commit crimes, it still explains and helps people out.

Differential association theory matched with strain theory works perfectly because persons who are subjected to conditions of social disorganisation will be far less likely to be able to achieve the dominant goals of society through conventional means, and therefore, are more likely to turn to crime. It is consistent with Differential association theory in that neighbourhoods with high levels of social disorganisation will subject individuals, particularly young men, to strong influences tending toward crime and delinquency.

Furthermore, strains may foster the social learning of crime; that is, strains may lead individuals to associate with others who reinforce crime, model crime, and teach beliefs favourable to crime. As Cohen (1955) and Cloward and Ohlin (1960) have suggested, strained individuals may associate with other criminals to cope with their strains. For example, abused or neglected juveniles may join gangs to find acceptance and support. Individuals who are threatened by others may join gangs for protection. Also, individuals who are subject to those strains conducive to crime may develop beliefs favourable to crime. For example, individuals who are regularly bullied by others may come to believe that violence is a justifiable, or at least excusable, way to cope. Individuals who are chronically unemployed may come to believe that theft is sometimes justifiable or excusable.

Finally, individuals who experience strains over a long period may develop personality traits conducive to crime, including traits such as negative emotionality. Individuals high in negative

emotionality are easily upset and become very angry when upset. The continued experience of strains reduces their ability to cope in a legal manner. Consequently, new strains are more likely to overwhelm them and make them very upset. Not surprisingly, such people are then more likely to cope through crime.

3.3 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the theories that were employed in the study. The theoretical framework was applied with a view to framing this research paper within the existing body of knowledge of the rural crimes. The theories that were used in this study underpinned the findings and were of great importance as they brightened the rural crime phenomenon and formed the foundation from which the data could be analysed and explained.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION

“Man’s mind, once stretched by a new idea, never regains its original dimensions”

Oliver Wendell Holmes

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at introducing and discussing the design of the research as well as the empirical techniques used. The chapter will summarise the method in which data was collected, which sampling method was used and the technique of analysing data. An ultimate plan for gathering and applying data was significant in this study in order that desired information could be attained with enough accuracy. The study employed purposive sampling method and the main data collection techniques used for this research study were individual semi structured interviews that allowed the researcher to probe. The data was then analysed using thematic analysis through the themes that were developed from the data.

4.2 Nature of the study

A qualitative method was employed using individual interviews (semi-structured) from the designated individuals at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi location.

The researcher employed the qualitative method of obtaining and analysing data, hence qualitative methods allows for the interpretation of the research findings through the eyes and voices of the people who participated themselves.

To study rural crimes, the researcher will draw upon the Differential Association and Strain theories. This research has practiced both primary and secondary data sources, where semi-structured interviews will be for primary data collection. Journals, articles, newspapers, and books will be utilised for secondary data collection.

4.3 Profile of KwaMaphumulo eStezi

This research was conducted at KwaMaphumulo eStezi, a rural area under uMshwathi Municipality. UMshwathi Municipality is situated in the North-East Quadrant of the uMgungundlovu District Municipality in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. It forms the seven indigenous municipalities in the uMgungundlovu District Municipality. It has the second largest population of the seven (after uMsunduzi). It has urban areas with the following names: Wartburg, New Hanover, Dalton, Cool-Air and Claridge. It has a population of 183 054 people according to the 2013 census. The uMshwathi Municipality is made up of 11 wards representing an array of rural settlements, from municipal service centres, agricultural landscapes, industrial, semi-rural to rural residential settlements. Development intensity and need particularly, housing varies across the different settlement types in the municipality. UMshwathi Municipality accounts for 1 811 km² of land area in the district.

Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi location is amongst the smallest sections of all the locations in Umshwathi Municipality which is occupied by the Zulu-speaking people. The primary business activity in this area is agriculture, with produce like sugar cane, timber, and maize. Other agricultural activities include poultry, pig farming, abattoirs, feedlots, mixed vegetables, avocado pears, and flowers. However, it not all Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi residents who have access to such resource. It depends on the land one has and the workforce at one's disposal. There are also some residents who do not grow crops because of the limited land and resources. As a result, some end up stealing from others to survive as there are fewer employment chances in the area. Even those who grow crops find difficulties in finding means to make money when it is not yet selling for their crop, as they depend on it.

Choosing this study was influenced by the realisation that most of the research that has been conducted on crime focused on crimes that took place in urban areas and there were very few studies that researched on rural crimes. Those that did research on rural crime only focused on rural countries in the western countries and not rural areas in the African context. However, such assumptions contribute to a situation where the nature of rural crime is unknown.

4.4 Sampling

Sampling is defined as a “process of selecting units from a population of interest so that by studying the sample the results may be fairly generalised back to the population from which

they were chosen” (Venter and Strydom, 2002). Sampling is essential because it helps in generalizing about populations regardless of the size.

A sample can help the researcher to save time, money, and effort in producing an accurate study. The larger the population the more difficult it is to analyse the data; thus, it makes sense to use a sample as it enables the researcher to utilise resources better (Venter and Strydom, 2002). For this study, non-probability sampling was employed using purposive sampling. Sample size of 20 respondents was used. The respondents were chosen because they are the senior citizens of the community and they know more about crime that takes place in the community. There are situations in which the researcher would consider using purposive or judgmental sampling methods; one is when the researcher uses it to select cases that are specifically informative (Neuman, 2000). Another situation is when the information the subject can supply is relevant to the study, for example, in this study teachers selected those learners they knew were exposed to violence, and thus, would give relevant information.

The study utilised the “young person” centred approach, because even when applied on a small sample size it is advantageous. Firstly, the type of information that is gathered is more in-depth, because it allows the young person to set the agenda and direct the pace of the interview. Secondly, the advantage of using a small sample is that it helps to critically compare what victims say in comparison to what others (such as parents or peers) say in the young person’s life about the violent experiences.

4.5 Research instruments

“An interview is a discussion; whose exclusive purpose is to gather descriptions of the life world of the interviewee” (Kvale, 1996). Moreover, it is also added by Schostak (2006) that “an interview is a conversation that is extendable between two people who wants to get in-depth information on a specific study or topic and get to know what the interviewee perceives that phenomena and express their perceptions, knowledge and their feelings about the topic.”

The researcher chose Individual semi-structured interviews as the instruments to guide this research. Semi-structured interviews were used in this study as they allow the participants to lead the interview, to give their thought, express their feelings, gives their beliefs as well as their values. Individual interviews also allow participants to talk freely, which is a good contribution to the research as it improves the reliability and validity of the study. It confirms

the confidentiality to the participants, hence only the researcher and the participants are present during the interview. This is important in the sense that it allows the participants to open up to the interviewer, feel at ease and provides a platform for them to voice individual experiences and concerns. In addition, there has been little research of this nature that has been conducted. Because of this approach, the participants and the researcher established a relatively happy and open relationship.

4.6 Data collection

Data collection is the most crucial section of the research process as it is the prerequisite for the data analysis chapter and it also determines the quality and validity of the research findings (Kumar, 2011). Furthermore, (Neuman, 2006) adds that “collection and recording of data will include what is remembered and has been experienced by the researcher. The researcher must pay attention to his/her participants and apply his/her attentive listening skills. When conducting interviews for this study, the researcher utilised an audio recorder as means of gathering data. The audio recorder was tested by the researcher prior to the interviews if it was operational enough. Throughout the interviews the audio recorder was made visible to the participants, allowing them the opportunity not to be recorded when answering certain questions.

4.6.1 Administration of interviews

The researcher conducted interviews in July 2017 with 20 participants who were 11 males and 9 females at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi. Semi-structured interviews were used to obtain information on the nature of rural crimes in the location. Semi-structured interviews were used because they give the interview richness and they allow the researcher to probe as he/she gives direction to the interview and expand the responses of interviewees. (Rubin and Rubin, 2005). The researcher visited the respondent's homes and asked them to be part of the study, when agreed they both set a date that the researcher will come back for conducting the actual interview. The researcher faced challenges when the respondent did not want to be part of the study fearing that whatever information they will give will end up to the police and have them arrested. The researcher ensured the participants that whatever they will say is confidential and it will remain between the researcher and the respondent. However, the researcher still felt that some of the respondents were still very uncomfortable with discussing some incidences and

they were still scared to disclose some information the researcher had to use probing skills to let that information out of the respondents.

The major intended outcome for conducting these interviews was on trying to get an understanding on the causes and the types of crimes that exist within the Kwa-Maphumulo location and to find out the types of strategies that the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi location uses in trying to deal with crimes that they experience in the location.

The language in which the interviews were written was English, though, the researcher translated the interview questions into isiZulu as English created a barrier between the researcher and participants. This translation made respondents more comfortable and even more engaging which was beneficial to the research as they were able to express themselves in a language that they understand and can speak. The interviews were conducted at the respondent's homes which was convenient for the respondents and it ensured their confidentiality. The researcher had one member of the community policing forum accompanying her to ensure her safety.

4.6.2 Data analysis

“Thematic analysis is a method of evaluating data by means of themes that emerged from data” (King, 2003 cited in Mkhize 2012). It is a qualitative analytical technique that allows the researcher to identify, analyse and report data.” Moreover, it also goes as far as allowing the researcher to interpret a wide range of aspects on a single topic (Braun and Clark, 2006). In this study, the researcher noted down all the patterns that emerged during the interviews, she kept note of the similarity between the experiences of participants. This helped the researcher to be able to classify all the data that connected to the formerly categorised patterns. This then allowed the researcher to easily transcribe and analyse themes that emerged during data collection. The patterns found were then clarified further, the grouping of similar participant's responses that fitted in one pattern was done. Following, sub-themes were formed from associated patterns. Furthermore, the researcher kept going back and forth trying to link literature with the responses of the study.

Confidentiality of participants was guaranteed because only the researcher and the respondent were present during the interview in cases where the participants was found with other people in the same room, those people were kindly asked to leave the room. When analyzing data, participant's names were not used but rather the use of pseudonyms was employed.

4.7 Ethical considerations

Researchers cannot just wake up and decide to conduct a research and involve human participants. They need to tolerate and follow certain steps of ethical considerations if their studies require human participants. This is to ensure that the researcher does not violate the rights of participants. For this study, the researcher followed these ethical considerations which are to be discussed in the following paragraphs.

4.7.1 What ethical considerations entails

According to Kumar (2011), for the changing ethos, values, needs and expectations to be accommodated, all professions needs to be have a code of ethics that evolve over the years as a guide. “Ethics” or “ethical behavior” is defined in the Collins Dictionary (1979: 502 cited in Kumar 2011) as an agreement with principles of conduct that are considered correct, especially those that are practiced in that profession or group. Furthermore, it is debated by Cohen et al. (2007), as cited in Kumar (2011), that conducting interviews is a form of intruding into other people’s private lives. The standard of ethical considerations to be maintained is determined by the level of sensitivity of the questions to be asked. He adds that at all stages of the research process the researcher must consider ethical issues as they are the significant aspect of the research.

In addition, Kumar (2011) further explains that due to the changing times, the way in which each profession serves the society also changes, meeting the needs and expectations of the society. This provokes change to the ethical codes that govern the way a service is determined. This basically means that academics must be mindful of the code of conduct ‘predominant at that point in time’ as Kumar (2011) states that “what has been considered ethical in the past may not be so judged at present, and what is ethical now may not remain so in the future.”

Ethical issues were rigorously considered in this research study as the research topic touched on a very sensitive issue which most people are not comfortable talking about. Informed consent forms were given to participants prior to the interviews. Informed consent allows respondent to understanding and decide if they are willing to participate in a study and it is not about signing a form. Prospective participants in a research study must understand the purpose, the procedures, the potential risks and benefits of their involvement, and their alternatives to participation.

4.7.2 Procedure followed

When conducting a research study, one cannot just simply enter their chosen research site and go about their business without following the correct procedures, and these include seeking permission from the gatekeeper. ‘Gatekeepers are with the formal and informal authorities that

control access to a site' (Neuman, 2000). These may include: 'a thug at a street corner, a school principal or an owner of a brothel.'

Obtaining a gatekeeper's letter to conduct research and interview the members of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi was a challenge. It took very long for the ward councillor to respond to the researcher's request. The researcher had requested to interview members of the community.

The researcher had to keep going back and forth, explaining the purpose and aim of her research to the councillor over and over and give reasons why she wanted to base her research specifically at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi. The councillor also needed to know how the research will benefit the community before he could give the researcher permission, therefore the researcher spent some additional time explaining how the community will benefit from the research.

Community members were identified by going to their homes and asking them to participate in the study and none of the study participants were forced to partake in the study. They were interviewed on their own free will after they were given an in-depth and clear explanation of the research study, after the reading out and signing of the letter of informed consent. Semi-structured interviews were conducted at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi in July 2017.

4.7.3 Informed consent

"Conducting a research or gathering data from participants without their knowledge or without allowing them to express their willingness and informed consent is considered very unethical by every discipline" (Kumar, 2011). Bailey (1978) supplementary explains that medical and social research both promotes the process where the researcher asks for informed consent of the participants.

According to the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects (1979), cited in Kumar (2011) "all informed consent procedures must meet three criteria: participants must be competent to give consent; sufficient information must be provided to allow for a reasoned decision; and consent must be voluntary and uncoerced."

The study followed all the steps that are mentioned above. The participants were all capable enough to provide consent. They were given a chance not to partake in the study if they feel uncomfortable as the study purpose was thoroughly explained to them. The members were also made aware about the process of collecting data and of the tools and instruments to be used for gathering information. The researcher informed them that the interviews would be recorded

and that all the recordings would be stored in a private place where only the researcher and the supervisor will have access to. It will be stored for a period of five years, then information can be discarded thereafter. Participants were also told that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from participating in the study should they meet with situations that makes them uncomfortable during process of collecting data.

The researcher assured participants of confidentiality and anonymity throughout the data collection process to the reporting and dissemination of the research. This was ensured though making the respondents aware that none of the information they share with the researcher would be used against them or revealed to their superior, fellows or anyone else for that matter. They were also assured that their names will not be mentioned when writing up a report so that the responses they give will anonymous. Once the study is completed the researcher will arrange a community meeting and give the community members results in a form of a hard copy thesis.

4.8 Limitations of the study

There were several limitations for the study, but the researcher did not allow them to compromise the validity and reliability of the study.

Obtaining gatekeepers letter has been a challenge for the researcher as it took over two months to obtain one. The ward councillor was always busy and out of the office so reaching him required patience. Correspondence via email took long as well, even after follow-ups. Getting ethical clearance from the university was also dragged. The researcher had to send the ethics department several emails and even call them before they gave her feedback.

The researcher also experienced some problems with participants, especially the ones that were old. She had to explain thoroughly the purpose of the study. The researcher is a member of the community so some participants said they would not know if the researcher was a police pimp or something like that and they cannot talk because they do not want to be arrested or asked to be witnesses. However, the researcher confirmed that research is only for academic purposes. Generally, people in the area were not comfortable to discuss crime as a result they showed discomfort about answering certain questions in which the researcher used probing to let them speak further.

Funding has also been one of the limitation, the researcher has not received any form of financial assistance yet and she experienced problems with getting an audio recorder which she ended up borrowing.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter gave a detailed analysis of the methodology that was used for the study. It also justified the use of qualitative approach in the study and it explained the values as well as the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

“There is no discovery without a search and there’s no rediscovery without a research”

Don E. Ethridge

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to discuss, present, and analyse the findings of the study. The study was conducted to understand the nature of rural crime within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area. This chapter first discusses, present and analyses information that has been obtained through individual interviews that were conducted at Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area. Individual interviews were conducted with 20 participants. Participant’s names were excluded to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Instead, letters of the alphabet were used to replace their names. The interviews were conducted in iSiZulu because all members of the community are Zulu speaking individuals. The study will employ thematic analysis. Themes will be identified from the data and then analysed.

5.2 Types of crime

Overall, the results of this study reveal that there are different types of crimes that exist in the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area, sixteen of the twenty participants mentioned murder, domestic violence, stock theft, rape, especially towards elderly people and children, burglary and substance abuse as the most common crimes. The other types of crimes that were mentioned by the remaining four participants were arson, assault, and school violence. This means that these types of crimes are not very prominent in the area since only a few participants mentioned them, or it can mean that they are only committed in some parts of the area. All of the crimes mentioned by participants are discussed below and this is what participants had to say:

Participant E:

“The types of crimes found in this community are murder, youth fights in taverns where people end up stabbing or even killing each other sometimes. And also, there is high rate of theft. People steal jojo tanks at night, chickens, wheel barrows, dogs which they use for hunting, as

well as livestock. There are also high levels of rape. And we also have many cases of domestic violence which is usually against women.”

Participant A had this to say:

“Erhm, what can I say, amongst the most common types of crimes that are found within our community, there is rapid rape cases. What can I say, there’s missing of livestock. It is usually stolen, and it get stolen by the community members for different reasons.”

Participant B had the following response:

“We have experienced cases of substance abuse, especially dagga because it is easily accessible. And we also have experienced murder, rape, arson, and school violence cases. School violence is usually towards educators. There has been very fewer cases where it is from one learner another. The police have not been paying much attention to the school violence when reported to them.”

This is what participant K had to say:

“We have had incidences of rape, murder, where in most cases it happens after a fight between two families fighting for whatever reason and it also happens between taxi owners and recently people’s heads have been found in the secluded parts of the location. We as a community think that people are killed for their body parts because the police have said that these heads are missing some parts. And then, I personally have experienced stock theft. my 5 cattle were stolen at night from the kraal. I reported the case to the police and they asked me to come back after a week should I not find my cattle. The police response made me lose hope and I did not return to them after a week had passed, till today I still haven’t found my cattle and I am very devastated by the service that is provided by our police station.”

5.2.1 Domestic violence

Another type of crime that was revealed was domestic violence. Domestic violence is believed to be the type of crime that is more common in the urban areas than rural areas. The results of the study show that there is domestic violence found within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area and some respondents said they have experienced this type of crime in their homes. According to the s, gender inequalities contribute significantly towards violence against women. They also revealed that in their rural community, marital status, economic dependence on husbands or live-in partners, illiteracy, acceptance of violence as a form of discipline, limited job opportunities, absence of safe houses and non-availability of transport to a police

station all place women in a vulnerable position and that is why domestic violence is under-reported to the police. This violence usually takes place in many forms. Physically, where they are being beaten, verbally, when they are called names or being sworn at, and it can also be sexual. The wives fear for their kid's well-being and education. They are scared to get their husbands arrested because they will be left without a bread winner and the kids will starve and end up not going to school.

Participant J:

“He beats me up every Friday when he is drunk, and call me names in front of our children. I know it is wrong, but I cannot talk to other people about my marital status, I cannot get him arrested either because no one will put food on our table or pay for my children's school fees. He becomes an animal when he is drunk. We all fear him, but he is the breadwinner. We cannot live without him even though this greatly affects our children.”

Participant J is one of the victims of domestic violence. She said that her husband beats her up every time when he is drunk, and he does this in front of children. This means that she is a victim of both physical and verbal abuse.

The early study of women's responses to violence by Cavanagh (2003), assumed only two possibilities for women in abusive relationships— staying or leaving. Mahoney (1994), posits that staying is often seen as, “...a socially suspect choice – often perceived as acceptance of the violence” while leaving is often seen as the only response which confirms a woman's unwillingness to tolerate the violence. Notwithstanding the significant risks involved in leaving, particularly the risk of homicide (Daly and Wilson, 1988), or the economic and social problems women face when they do leave, separation from the partner was and still is seen as the ultimate, or only, act of resistance. Women who stay or return, continue to be implicated in their abuse as either willing victims responsible in some way for ‘provoking’ the violence. Stereotypes of women's helplessness, dependency, and passivity, often reflected in the social work literature, confirm women's status as ‘victims’ (Cavanagh, 2003).

The above paragraph reveals that the findings of other authors are in line with the findings of this study. This study revealed that many women continue to stay in abusive relationships because they are dependent on men and they feel that they are helpless on their own without men. They also feel that it is socially acceptable for women to tolerate their abusive partners. Somehow that is what constitutes a “strong” woman which is why they end up accepting being the victims of violence.

Participant J mentioned that their children are greatly affected by the violence that takes place at their home. Literature confirms that children who witness domestic violence are greatly influenced psychologically by witnessing their mothers being abused. According to Bancroft, 2004 Children may witness domestic violence by either seeing the actual incidents of physical/and or sexual abuse. It can mean hearing threats or fighting noises from another room. Children may also observe the aftermath of physical abuse such as blood, bruises, tears, torn clothing, and broken items. And they may be aware of the tension in the home such as their mother's fearfulness when the abuser's car pulls into the driveway (Bancroft, 2004).

Bancroft (2004) further explains that whether children are physically abused, they often suffer emotional and psychological trauma from living in homes where their fathers abuse their mothers. Children whose mothers are abused are denied the kind of home life that fosters healthy development. Children who grow up observing their mothers being abused, especially by their fathers, grow up with a role model of intimate relationships in which one person uses intimidation and violence over the other person to get their way. Because children have a natural tendency to identify with strength, they may ally themselves with the abuser and lose respect for their seemingly helpless mother. Abusers typically play into this by putting the mother down in front of her children and telling them that their mother is "crazy" or "stupid" and that they do not have to listen to her. Seeing their mothers treated with enormous disrespect teaches children that they can disrespect women the way their fathers do (Bancroft, 2004). This is in line with the response of participant G, when he was asked about why do children choose to become criminal instead of going to school.

Participant G:

"Most children who are school dropout are from broken families. They witness violence at homes and they want to practise it in school. They learn to disrespect their mothers at homes and end up disrespecting educators and get expelled in schools. This is confirmed by the fact that they disrespect female educators more."

Most experts believe that children who are raised in abusive homes learn that violence is an effective way to resolve conflicts and problems (Bancroft, 2004). They may replicate the violence they witnessed as children in their teen and adult relationships and parenting experiences. Boys who witness their mother's abuse are more likely to batter their female partners as adults than boys raised in nonviolent homes. For girls, adolescence may result in

the belief that threats, and violence are the norm in relationships (Bancroft, 2004). This is like the findings of this study as indicated by the responses of the participants below:

Participant G had to say:

“Eerhm, even though I cannot say much on that because they have different reasons, but most of them become rebels at schools, they disrespect teachers and don’t want to listen and learn. Instead, they become violent. This may be because most of them come from broken homes and/or abusive homes and therefore they lack discipline. And then there are those who are forced by circumstances where at homes they do not afford to pay for their education.”

Participant H had this to say:

“I think it is because they are unemployed and, they do not want to learn at school. They are hot headed and violent, so teachers chase them out of school and then they end up being thieves and robbers. Some of them learn to be violent at homes because most families in this community have domestic violence. And, you know, children are most likely to copy the bad behaviours from their parents.”

Participant C said this:

“Our male children are very mischievous and rebellious therefore they go to taverns even if we tell them not to go and then they end up being hurt there. So as parents we are always expecting the worst and that is not good for our health.”

This shows that most children in the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area are being affected by the domestic violence that happens at homes as some of them had dropped out from schools and became criminals. Participant C was very concerned about youth fights that takes place in the area. Such may be because of domestic violence as well.

According to participant C, male children are the most mischievous and violent specie of the community who always leave parents worried and concerned. This means that most domestic violence in the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area is directed towards women and male children learn to be violent from their fathers as stated in Bancroft (2004).

5.2.2 Livestock theft

Stock theft was also found in study and research done by the department of community safety and liaison (2010). The report states that South Africa’s rural areas are vast and remote making the tracking of stolen stock difficult and the movement of stock problematic to detect. Most

KwaZulu-Natal rural areas experience the stealing of livestock. Stock thieves operating in South Africa operate in organised networks that invariably involve local criminals.

Within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area, stock that is most likely to be stolen includes cattle, goats, and chickens. There is no major difference when the livestock is locked in the kraal and if it is on the veld because the number of cases reported for both is almost the same. One respondent said that the rate of stock theft rises because of poverty. Stock thieves usually sell the stolen stock outside of the community hence it is usually not found even after the whole community has been searched. She further explained that those who steal chickens do so because of hunger.

Participant K had this to say:

“I personally have experienced stock theft. My five cattle were stolen at night from the kraal. I reported the case to the police and they asked me to come back after a week should I not find my cattle. The police response made me lose hope and I did not return to them after a week had passed. Till today I still haven’t found my cattle and I am very devastated by the service that is provided by our police station.”

Participant J mentioned the following:

“Stock theft is very common in this area, the type of stock that is most likely to be stolen is goats and cattle. We also have assault, arson, and burglary. Some young boys burned a sugarcane field just last week, I do not know the motivation of such behaviour, but I think it is just delinquent behaviour and being rebels.”

The DCSL has published research which offers guidelines for community actions to prevent stock theft. Communities have an important role to play in ensuring that fences are in place and in a good state, that stock is properly marked and that cases are reported timeously. They should also inform investigators if stock is recovered. The lack of impounding facilities makes it difficult to confiscate stock from suspected stock thieves.

5.2.3 Substance abuse

Another problematic issue that was raised by the participants is that of substance abuse. Substance abuse is one of the overlapping crimes. It is found in both urban and rural areas. Respondents revealed that youths in the area are increasingly using illicit drugs, mainly Wonga and dagga. There is also an increase in alcohol consumption among the youths. They are said to be spending most of their time in taverns, and they are known to become violent both at the

taverns as well as when they return home. Youths start consuming alcohol from a young age and some have been found to be drunk while at school. Which then results to them dropping out of school and spend their whole day in taverns. Parents become very worried about this behaviour as they want bright futures for their children, but they cannot really do much about it because of the extent of violence amongst their youth children.

Participant C:

“Substance use causes them to be violent and start unnecessary fights, these fights affect us so much as parents. Our male children are very mischievous and rebellious therefore they go to taverns even if we tell them not to go and then they end up being hurt there. So as parents we always expecting the worst and that is not good for our health.”

5.2.4 Rape

Rape is another crime that has been found in the study. Respondents of the study have revealed that rape is becoming the most common type of crime amongst other. They also said that children and elders are usually the victims of rape in the area. In most cases perpetrators are usually people closer to the victim which includes family members, neighbours or people that are closer to the victim’s family.

This is what Participant M had to comment about rape:

“There are families in the community where elders end up staying on their own because their children and grand-children lives in the city. This places them in a very vulnerable position. Rape offenders target them. Rape is usually not reported to the police because some families are afraid of the shame and stigma that is attached to it. If the perpetrator is a family member, other family members especially elders, do not usually speak about it. Only children do.”

Participant J had this to say:

“We experience high rates of rape. Children are raped by their fathers. It is very disturbing. There are cases of burglary and there are few incidents of assault. People who have consumed alcohol commit this type of crime. Assault cases are usually not reported to the police, families resolve them amongst themselves.”

According to South African murder journal (2013), child sexual-abuse of rural children occurs because of the powerlessness and poverty of rural children within the context of the socio-economic challenges facing rural areas. It is believed that the structure of the rural family

accentuates the sexual abuse of rural girls, with young men not receiving adequate guidance as they mature, particularly in relation to gender relations and their own sexuality. The school is unfortunately also a site of much of the sexual violence against girls with many girls being raped, sexually abused, assaulted and harassed by teachers and their fellow classmates (South African murder journal, 2013).

The impacts of sexual crimes on children include isolation from their peers, often leading to depression, and lower quality of their own parenting later in life. Rural child victims are much more likely to succumb to these impacts given the lack of therapeutic services available to rural victims and they are more prone to secondary victimisation during investigations and trials since police stations and courts in rural areas often lack the infrastructure to protect children (South African murder journal, 2013). These findings are similar to the findings of this study as some participants have confirmed that children who are victims of rape usually underperform at school. They do not want to play with other children.

Participant O had this to say:

“We as the community members are worried about the level of rape in this community. Rape affects children severely. We have woman who were raped in their childhood and they say that the incidence still haunts them. Many of them did not get therapeutic help and therefore did not heal properly. They become overprotective of their children as they fear that they would be raped too.”

Participant Q had this to say:

“I am a victim of rape, I was raped by my father when I was 15 years old. My mother asked me not to tell anyone. This was because my father was a breadwinner and, so he couldn’t be exposed. It still haunts me till today. I lost so much through this incidence. I am still damaged emotionally.”

Most rural children still walk long distances to school and networks to respond to child abuse, neglect and exploitation need to be strengthened in rural areas. Many children are often unaware that acts committed against them are, in fact, crimes. Factors that restrict children’s access to justice include instances where the perpetrator is the family breadwinner or authority figure, and where there simply are no resources to access service providers (South African murder journal, 2013). This is in line with the following response from participant P.

Respondent P:

“In this area we are faced with escalating levels of rape. It is usually against young girls and elderly females. In most cases young girls are raped by their family members (uncles, brothers and fathers) and then in some cases they are raped by strangers on their way from school because schools are in secluded areas and there is a shortage of them – so kids are forced to attend at ones that are at a far distance.”

5.2.5 Murder

Murder is also another crime that was identified as existing in the area and most participants mentioned that most people who commits this type of crime are people with guns. So, there is a correlation between gun ownership and murder in the community.

Participant K had this to mention:

“Most people in the area own guns. Some of them use the guns for hunting since many people still hunt in this community. They also use these guns for killing other people. However, we also have incidences where murder is committed in the form of stabbing and other forms. We do know most of the people who own guns in the community, but we cannot do anything about it. We do not want to get ourselves killed.”

Participant D had this as a response:

“People with guns commit all sort of crimes. They intimidate people. They commit murder, rape people, steal, and they break in and point guns and take whatever. The issue of gun ownership in this community is not something new. In the past there was a war between political parties and many people owned guns and killed people. Most of them did not get arrested, we live with them. We hear that they have a list of people that they are still going to kill. We do not know how true that is, but we know that they are heartless offenders, who are used to killing.”

The findings revealed that there is a correlation between gun ownership and murder in the community of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi. Thus, the findings of this study correlate with the findings of the study conducted by Igielnik, (2017) where he attested that rural and urban gun owners differ in many ways. Three-quarters of those in rural areas say they own more than one gun, compared with 48% of urban gun owners. And while protection tops the list of reasons for owning a gun among both groups, gun owners in rural areas are far more likely than urban owners to cite hunting as a major reason they own a gun (48% vs. 27%, respectively). However,

most rural areas with high rates of gun ownership experiences high crime rate, murder being the most common (Igielnik, 2017).

Some participants of the study mentioned that within their families, there are individuals who own guns. And they also know of some people in the community who own guns.

Participant C responded in this manner:

“We live with people who own guns in this community. People fear them, me included. One cannot just do or say anything to them. We fear for our lives. It was reported to the police because some of these guns are not even licenced, but the police couldn’t really deal with the matter effectively.”

This is what participant B had to say:

“I know that guns are very common in this community because even at home there is 3 family members who possesses guns. Guns are intimidating, because we also get intimidated at home.”

The results do not confirm that everybody who own a gun in the community is involved in criminality or is a murderer. This means that some individuals use their guns solely for hunting purposes and not to commit crime. This is confirmed by the fact that participants who spoke on this used the term “most,” not “everyone.”

5.2.6 Burglary

Burglary is also another type of crime that the study revealed. Respondents mentioned that offenders usually target houses where there is no guardian present and they also target tuckshops during the night. This may mean that offenders are people who know the routine of people who lives in those homes or the owner of the tuckshop.

Participant C said this:

“They broke into my tuckshop at night, I usually sleep there because we are aware of the high rates of burglary. I think the people who broke in were aware that I was not sleeping in that night. They took a few groceries and the money. This confirms that it is people who have been in the tuckshop before and they know where money is kept.”

Participant L had this to say:

“The offenders stole my television and my microwave, they broke through the window. My kids were at school and I was at work. I was not aware that this place was this dangerous.”

Participant M had this to say:

As soon as my neighbour left, I heard strange noises coming from her yard but then I thought that her children were trying to fix something. I did not know that the kids had gone to their grandmother’s place to visit. When she comes back, she told me that some of her staff were missing and her door was broken.”

The exponents of the routine activities theory argue that crime is the product or result of an opportunity that presents itself during social activities taking place on everyday life. And that the routine activities of individuals expose them to the risk of being victimised. Looking at the participants responded, the criminals studied the routines activities of the family as they were able to break in and steal when the family members were not around. Even the neighbours were not aware, but the criminals knew that family members were not around.

The study reveals that there have been few cases of arson, assault and school violence reported. The type of arson common in the area is the burning of sugarcane fields. Fewer cases of violence in schools have been identified and male learners are usually the perpetrators of this violence. Assault cases has been very few and it has happened amongst drunk individuals.

5.3 Causes of crime

A study by Fryer (2006) revealed that levels of poverty and unemployment in South Africa are critically high, despite the country’s status as an upper middle-income country. Poverty and unemployment are structural rather than cyclical in nature. Chronic structural manifestations of poverty and unemployment are far more difficult to address in terms of policy interventions than transient cyclical episodes. The findings of the study show that Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area is also faced with high levels of poverty and unemployment which indicates the correlation between the findings of this study and those of Fryer (2006) as cited above.

5.3.1 Poverty and unemployment

Participant B had this to say:

“Unemployment is the major cause of crime. This community lacks employment opportunities so much. People need to eat, they need to clothe themselves and their families and all that needs

money so without employment one cannot meet such needs. This causes people to divert to criminality for survival. For over 40 years that I have lived in this area there hasn't been any employment opportunity. The road infrastructure project is the first proper project in this community but still we are not satisfied about it as the members of the community because there are only a few people that are employed there and it is a temporary thing, we wish to have permanent job opportunities in the location. That might minimise the level of crime in this area."

Participant C had this to say:

"Yes, there is a relationship between poverty, unemployment, and level of crime. Majority of people who are poor find it very difficult to be schooling. Some of them even say that the money that is paid at schools may be used for other useful things. Employment opportunities are very rare in this community and if one is uneducated they cannot even go outside the community to seek for job opportunities hence many job opportunities require one to at least have matric. School dropouts end up turning to crime as their tool to escape their poverty and unemployment. In the area most people who commit crime are those who are uneducated."

Majority of the respondents exposed that poverty and unemployment create conditions that lead to several insecurities for community members. Some families within the community live in overcrowded conditions leading to stress and tension. Children often lack parental supervision and must assume responsibility for other children. This therefore directly contribute to conditions for an increase in crime as poor families cannot afford education for their children which means that the children will be deprived of employment opportunities since education is the basic requirement for employment. Moreover, these children grow to be criminals as they wish to better the situations at their homes but lack the means.

According to strain theory by Agnew (1992), certain strains or stressors increase the likelihood of crime. These strains lead to undesirable emotions, such as frustration and anger. These emotions generate burden for corrective act, and crime is one probable reaction. This can mean that some people who commit crime in rural areas are pushed by frustrations and undesirable emotions that are caused by poverty and unemployment. This led the respondents to the conclusion that there is greater relationship between level of education and crime.

However, as stated in Sutherland's differential association theory by Burgess et al, (1996), behaviour is learned through interaction with others. Some offenders in the community comes from well off homes. Financial constraints and poverty are not push factors for them. They

‘learned’ to be criminals. Many of them were mischievous at schools and got expelled then decided to be friends with criminals and then learned criminality in a form of peer-pressure.

Participant K mentioned the following:

“Yes, people who are unemployed and pushed by poverty end up engaging in criminal activities and it is mostly people who are uneducated. However, we still find educated people committing crime, but community members turn a blind eye on that fact because they are respected people of the community.”

Participant K revealed that it is not only people who are uneducated that commit crime in the area. This means that most people are unaware of the educated people that commit crime in the area or they choose to ignore that fact due to different reasons.

5.3.2 The distance between the community and the police

The findings of the study revealed that the distance that exists between the community and the police has an impact on the rate of crime. Most participants estimated the distance to be about 11 kilometres far from the community and they further explained that it costs more than R30 to go to the police station to report crime and as a result, people who don’t afford taxi fare end up not reporting crime.

Participant C:

“Yes, the distance existing between the police and the community increases the rate of crime because people are not scared to commit crime because the police station is far, and the police are not very effective on patrolling. If the police station was nearer people would be scared to offend.”

Participant F:

“Yes, the distance that exists between the police and the community causes a huge damage, it is costly to travel to the police station and report crime. Even calling them requires airtime so people need to have money to be able to report crime. That is the reason some people don’t report crime at all because they do not have the means to.”

Ralph et al. (2004) purport that without sufficient and adequate resources, the policing of rural areas will remain a challenge. Given the size, geographic isolation, and dispersion of many of South Africa’s rural areas, it is unlikely that a police strategy based on a visible police presence alone will succeed in curbing crime. The respondents of the study mentioned that the police

are not very effective in trying to combat crime within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area. Lack of police resources such as police vehicles might be the major cause for this, especially with regards to patrolling as there is huge distance between the police station and the area of Kwa-Maphumulo EStezi. However, this is debatable because respondent B, D and I said that they sometimes see police officers in the community when they come for hunting or to check up on their girlfriends who live in the area. This leaves the community members confused and furious because the police resources are somehow available when the police need resources for their personal use, but they fail to make means to reach to the community when the community needs them. Ralph et al. (2004) further explains that police stations are not easily reached, and it is therefore not easy for police to respond on time or apprehend perpetrators quickly. This issue was also raised in the Provincial Schools Safety Summit where it was noted that police do not respond timeously to school safety incidents because they must travel long distances to crime scenes on roads which are in poor condition. As a result, crimes against children are reported to teachers who in some cases assist the children to report matters. Majority of the respondents brought to the researcher's attention that reporting crime in the area is a huge challenge.

In addition, police continuously bemoan the fact that they have difficulty policing rural areas because of the poor road conditions and rough terrain. Other reasons for the non-attendance of police to rural crime reports include:

- The nature and seriousness of the incident – i.e. whether the incident warrants investigation and follow-up at the actual scene of the crime;
- The successful resolution or mediation of the issue at the police station which would not require follow-up.

Usually in practice, only the most serious cases are responded to and less serious cases are either dealt with when time and resources allow, or they are dispensed with without much attention (Community safety and liaison, 2010).

5.3.3 Lack of recreational facilities

Results shows that the area lacks recreational facilities, and therefore youth commits crime the most because they have too much time on their hands and very little positive and educational things to do. The area does not have parks for children and facilities like the library, art centres and other skill improving facilities. This gives youth enough time to invest in planning criminal activities than being busy with other life-bettering activities.

Participant Q:

“Youths commit crime the most in this community. This may be because this area lacks facilities where youths can actually go and improve their skill and get training.”

Participant B:

“The age group that commits crime the most in our area is the youth. I think this is because of the shortage of talent and skills-improving facilities. Some people have talents and are not doing well at school. Should we have recreational facilities in the community those people who are not doing well academically will also have something to be busy with and to improve their lives. We need things like drama classes.”

5.4 Strategies to combat crime

Community policing forum and the *‘isigungu senduna’* are the two strategies that have been found to be existing within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area.

5.4.1 Community Policing Forum

The participants were asked if the CPF was alive and effective and the participants had this to say:

Participant F:

“Yes, I can say the CPF is very effective especially because they are all formed by members of the community for the community. They work effectively with the police and they make it easy for the police to catch offenders. And they also make it easy for the community members to get help from the police because the police are quick to respond to the matter that is reported by the member of the CPF than matters that are reported by an anonymous community member over the phone.”

Participant B had this as a response:

“Yes, the CPF is alive and active, because there are offenders who have been arrested. It is just that some people do not report crime to the CPF. They want to take their matters straight to the police. But I have noticed that some people do not trust the CPF since they are community members. Some people are scared to share their matters with other community members. They rather go to the police which are usually strangers.”

Participant E shared the following:

“I know that we do have the CPF but it is not very effective, I have never heard of any case that they solved and were successful so far.”

Participant B had the following to share:

“We do have a CPF that works towards minimising the level of crime. However, it is not very effective. It seems like they are concerned at the beginning, but the cases just die down as time goes on. And the fact that they are community members themselves, they are biased in some cases.”

Participant F had this to say:

“I recently heard that there is a community policing forum that I did not know it existed. I thought we only have the *isigungu* as the only form of dealing with crime in our community.”

The above responses show that the community policing forum at the KwaMaphumulo eStezi area is effective to some extent. Some community members are happy with the service of the forum while others do not even know that the forum exists. The CPF is said to be working effectively when and if the community members are cooperating with it. Respondent F said that he did not know about the CPF so if there are people who do not even know about the existence of the forum this means that the community itself is not meeting the CPF halfway which makes it difficult for the CPF to be more effective. One of the challenges that dim the purpose of the CPF is the fact that CPF members are also community members and people are scared to talk about their problems to people they live in the same community with. Respondent B and other respondents confirmed this.

5.4.2 Isigungu/ Induna

‘*Induna*’ is a traditional leader of the community. Traditional leaders are found in many rural areas. He becomes responsible for giving direction and guidance to many things that happen within the respective community. *Isigungu* is a traditional court that works closely with induna in the process of combating crime. In most rural areas court hearings are usually held on Sundays so that majority of the people are present. They bring both the victim and the offender to listen to both sides of the story before they could make a verdict. In less serious crimes they charge fines to offenders when found guilty. In more serious crimes they can decide to involve the police for proper sentencing or ban the offender sometimes together with his\her family of the offender from the area.

Participant O had this to say:

“We report crimes either to Induna or to the police. People are most likely to report to Induna than the police because the Induna lives here within the community, so I can say that ‘*isigungu*’ is one of the strategies of dealing with crime that we have in the community apart from the CPF and the police.”

This is what participant P had to say:

“We do have “Induna” and the CPF. “Induna” is our leader, he has a committee that he is working with on holding meetings to resolve crime issues.”

‘*Isigungu*’ is a traditional strategy of combating crime, but it is similar to some of the crime combating strategies that are found within South African criminal justice system, more specifically in the Restorative justice system. Victim-offender dialogue is one of the crime prevention strategies that are similar to “*isigungu*.” They both let the offender and the victim tell their sides of the story. They make sure that all the stakeholders are involved.

Research conducted by Groenveld (2017) describes Victim-offender dialogue, also known as the victim-offender mediation, as the face-to-face meeting, in the presence of a trained mediator, between the victim of a crime and the person who committed that crime. This is in line with the findings of the study because *isigungu* also has the offender, the victim and the “induna” that acts as the trained mediator of the offender victim dialogue.

Groenveld (2017) further explains the aim of the process as to empower victims to participate effectively in dialogue or mediation with offenders. Victims take an active role in directing the exchange that takes place, as well as defining the responsibilities and obligations of offenders. Offenders are likewise encouraged to participate in this exchange, to understand the harm they have caused to victims, and to take active responsibility for it. This means making efforts on their parts to set things right, to make amends for their violations, by committing to certain obligations, that may come in the form of reparations, restitution, or community work. While fulfilling these obligations may be experienced as painful, the goal is not revenge, but restoration of healthy relationships between individuals and within communities that have been most affected by the crime (Groenveld, 2017). This is exactly like what *isigungu* does as indicated by the participants.

Moreover, the process is a forward-looking, preventive response that strives to understand crime in its social context. This approach assumes that crime has its origins in social conditions,

and recognises that offenders themselves have often suffered harm. Therefore, communities must both take some responsibility for remedying those conditions that contribute to crime and work to promote healing (Groenveld, 2017).

Healing is crucial not just for victims, but also for offenders. Both the rehabilitation of offenders and their integration into the community are vital aspects of restorative justice. Offenders are treated respectfully, and their needs are addressed. Removing them from the community, or imposing any other severe restrictions, is a last resort. It is thought that the best way to prevent re-offending is re-integration (Groenveld, 2017). This is in correlation with the response of participant F.

Participant F:

“I would say that *isigungu* is effective in a far better way than the police as it gives the victims a chance to talk about the incidences, share it with the community and in doing so it gives the victim closure and a chance to heal. It also gives them a sense of forgiveness and moving on after they have asked the victim everything they needed to know.”

Some participants mentioned that *isigungu* helps the community resolve crime issues very effectively because it is people of the community, people who are familiar with the place, the people and the challenges of the community. They see the *isigungu* more fit to prevent crime as compared to the police. Participants feel that the police are total strangers who are just employed to combat crime.

Participant L had this to say:

“We have the CPF as a coping strategy, we also have the *isigungu* which works better than the CPF. The CPF works closely to the police, while the *isigungu* works closely to the community. The *isigungu* put the offender and the victim in one space and try to resolve their issue in the presence of us all as the community members. This makes us even happier as the community because decisions are not taken on our behalf we also get to decide what happens to the offenders.”

However, some participants feel that the *isigungu* is not effective. Participants mentioned that *isigungu* is biased to some extent. They feel that decisions made there are influenced by who the offender or the victim is.

Participant P had this to say:

“This community has *isigungu* and the CPF as the strategies of preventing crime. None of the strategies is effective though, members of the CPF are too lazy. They do not attend to all the crimes reported to them, and sometimes they are not available when needed. The *isigungu* is intimidating in its nature. The fact that the victim must speak in front of the offender is very intimidating. Sometimes there are cases where the offender is unknown.”

This is what participant K had to say:

“There is CPF and, uuhhm, there is “*isigungu*.” The CPF is effective to some extent. It is us community members who don’t want to make use of the CPF services and then blame it for not being effective. So, I can say that the CPF is effective if community members acknowledged its existence. “*isigungu*,” for me, is not effective. To some extent I feel that it is a money-making business because in most cases people are asked to pay a certain amount of money as a fine. This means that people will commit crime frequently because they know that a mere R500 will get them off the hook. People sometimes lie and accuse other people to get the money. So, I am not for the whole process, I feel that it is not serving its purpose of combating and/or preventing crime.”

Of the 20 participants, only 3 participants felt that the *isigungu* is not effective. This means that majority of the community members feel that this method is useful and effective.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter has presented, discussed, and analyzed data using thematic analysis. Themes were created using the major topics standing out in the data. The types of crimes found were murder, rape, burglary, domestic violence, and livestock theft. Domestic violence is prominent amongst women and it also affects children. It was also found that livestock that is usually stolen is goats and cattle. Rape is also said to be a prominent issue within the area and it is against young girls and elders. Burglary usually takes place in the absence of guardianship and at night. Amongst the causes of crime, geographical isolation is one of them, gun ownership is also another cause as gun ownership is very common within the area. Poverty and unemployment is also a contributory factor. The study revealed the community policing forum and the *isigungu* as the available strategies of dealing with crime. All these findings are presented in summarized manner in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This study was conducted to understand the nature of rural crime within the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area. This chapter presents the conclusion of the study together with the appropriate recommendations.

6.2 General conclusions

The following objectives of the study were considered to make general conclusions that will be discussed in this chapter.

- To investigate the types of crimes that exist in the rural areas.
- To explore reasons for occurrence.
- To determine the effect of crime to the community.
- To determine if there are any crime prevention strategies that are in the community and to understand its effectiveness.

6.2.1 The types of crimes that exists in the rural areas

The findings of this study reveal that murder, rape, burglary, substance abuse, livestock theft and domestic violence are the types of crimes that exists in the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi community. Arson, assault, and school violence were also found but only few participants mentioned these types of crimes and they said there have been fewer cases of these crimes.

The findings revealed that women who experiences domestic violence do not report it. This may be caused by their, marital status, economic dependence on husbands or live-in partners, illiteracy, acceptance of violence as a form of discipline, limited job opportunities, absence of safe-houses and non-availability of transport to a police station all place women in a vulnerable position and that is why domestic violence is under reported to the police. This violence usually takes place in many forms. Physically where they are being beaten, verbally, when they are called names or being sworn at, and it can also be sexual. The wives fear for their kid's well-being and education. They are scared to get their husbands arrested because they will be left without a bread winner and the kids will starve and end up not going to school.

Rape is another crime that has been found in the study. Respondents of the study have revealed that rape is becoming the most common type of crime amongst other. They also said that children and elderly women are usually the victims of rape in the area. In most cases perpetrators are usually people closer to the victim which includes family members, neighbours or people that are closer to the victim's family.

Murder and burglary has been identified as the crimes that are existing in the area and most participants mentioned that most people who commit murder are people with guns. So there is a correlation between gun ownership and murder in the community. Murderers usually kill for wealth. They kill for certain body parts. Burglary is also another type of crime that the study reveals. Results revealed that offenders usually target houses where there is no guardian present and they also target tuck shops during the night. This may mean that offenders are people who know the routine of people who live in those homes or the owner of the tuck shop.

The study discloses that there has been few cases of arson, assault and school violence reported. The type of arson common in the area is the burning of sugarcane fields. Fewer cases of violence in schools has been identified and male learners are usually the perpetrators of this violence. Assault cases has been very few and it has happened amongst drunk individuals.

6.2.2 Causes of crime

Unemployment, poverty, and geographic isolation are the major factors that were found by the study as the cause of crime. Results of the study exposed that poverty and unemployment create conditions that lead to several insecurities for community members. Some families within the community live in overcrowded conditions leading to stress and tension. Children often lack parental supervision and must assume responsibility for other children. This therefore directly contributes to conditions for an increase in crime as poor families cannot afford education for their children which means that the children will be deprived of employment opportunities since education is the basic requirement for employment.

The distance that exists between the community and the police has an impact on the rate of crime. Community members confirmed that the police station is far from the community and that on its own is a causal factor to crime. It takes some time for the police to reach the area should there be a crime incident. Sometimes the police do not come at all to attend to criminal matters. Most criminal incidences are not reported to the police because of the distance. People do not have means for their transportation to the police stations to report crime.

6.2.3 The effect of crime to the community

Community members are concerned with the escalating rate of crime in their community and they feel that the distance that is existing between the police and the community is a major worry. The findings of the study revealed that the distance that exists between the community and the police has an impact on the rate of crime. Most participants estimated the distance to be about 11 kilometres far from the community and they further explained that it costs more than R30 to go to the police station to report crime and as a result, people who do not afford taxi fare end up not reporting crime.

Crime in the community results in members becoming fearful of walking around the area when it is dark. They are not proud to be the citizens of the area. Some people work in the nearest towns and they travel there. They always leave during early hours and come back late when it is dark. Due to the rate of crime in their community and the fact that they fear walking while it is still dark they end up quitting their jobs. Children also quit school. Because behaviour is learned, violence in the community is learned by school learners who end up bullying other school learners. Those who are being bullied choose to quit school because they no longer feel safe at school. Furthermore, high rate of rape in the area and youth fights causes panic attacks to parents. They panic when their kids are at school. They fear that their children might get raped on their way from school.

6.2.4 Crime prevention strategies

The findings reveal that the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi community has the community policing forum and the isigungu as the crime prevention strategies. The community policing forum at the Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi area is effective to some extent. Some community members are happy with the service of the forum while others don't even know that the forum exists. The CPF is said to be working effectively when and if the community members are cooperative. Isigungu is a traditional way of rural communities that they use to resolve crime issues. They hold meetings that involves the victim the offender and all other stakeholders of the community to hear the sides of the story both from the victim and the offender before deciding if the offender is guilty or not. This strategy of solving crime in this community has the principles of restorative justice system, as it includes the victim and offender. However, what is also more interesting is that even community members have a sense of ownership in whatever decision that is taken about to resolve crime or any conflicts. Both the CPF and isigungu has been said to be effective to some extent.

6.3 Recommendations

After considering the results of this study, the following recommendations can be made:

- There is a lack of proper infrastructure in the area and it needs improvements. This is a motivational factor to the offenders. There are no street lights in the area and this causes offenders to be able to commit criminal activities at night and get away with it. There are no proper roads in the community, this makes it difficult for the police to reach the area especially because the road gets muddy on rainy days.
- Osofsky et.al (1995) and Finkelhor and Dziuba-Leatherman (1994) recommended that a family-centred and community-centred approach that builds on strengths within communities is needed. The encouragement and facilitation of community empowerment and self-determination programs are needed to address the issue of crime prevention. As part of crime prevention initiative, education, job opportunities and increased family and community support should be provided to youth and children. Community and family-centred programmes, including churches, schools and other community-based institutions should address issues of crime prevention. They state that children, parents, and communities require multi-institutional support to cope with rural crime. These recommendations are relevant and needed in the community of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi thus the researcher recommends the same for this community.
- The presence of psychological services is also needed within the area. There are no psychologists or social workers in the community to counsel victims of crime. Many people struggle with coping after being victims of crime, especially rape, domestic violence, and murder victims. They usually suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder and counselling usually helps people heal.
- There is a need for crime awareness programs in the area. People need to be taught about potential causes of crime as well as the crime preventative measures. These programmes may seek to engage residents, community and faith-based organisations, and local government agencies in addressing the factors that contribute to the community's crime, delinquency, and disorder.

6.4 Conclusion

Crime is not only found in urban areas. Rural areas are also faced with high rates of crimes. Most of the crimes are overlapping, there are found in both urban and rural areas. Rural people have greater challenges in dealing with crime as there are so many factors that are limiting them. Unemployment and poverty are factors that pushes rural people to criminality. Geographical isolation between the police and the community acts as a catalyst to the rate of crime as it causes the police to be ineffective. Rural communities need to have more crime prevention strategies. The South African government should work together with the ward councillors from rural areas to come up with new strategies or combating crime, to improve rural infrastructure, to provide better education and training for rural people and to provide psychological services for rural communities.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed consent letter

School of Applied Human Sciences,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Howard College Campus,

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Ms. Nondumiso Mbatha. I am a Masters candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College campus, South Africa. I am currently conducting a research study titled: '*An understanding of the nature of rural crimes*'. Your community was purposively selected to be the community to participate in the study and you have also been randomly selected to be one of the community members to participate.

To gather the information, I am interested in asking you some questions.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The interview may last for about 30 minutes and may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research aims at knowing the causes of crimes in the area, how these crimes affect the community at large, as well as to understand the crime prevention strategies found in the area
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	Willing	Not willing
Audio recorder		

I can be contacted at:

Email: 212560237@stu.ukzn.ac.za

Cell: 0840131090

My supervisor is Miss V. Maweni who is located at the School of Applied Human Sciences, Criminology Department, Howard College campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Contact details: email: Maweniv@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312601773.

You may also contact the Research Office through:
P. Mohun
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research

Mbambiqhaza

INCWADI YESIGUNYAZO

Mayelana nomcwaningi

Igama lami ngingu Nkosazane. Nondumiso Mbatha. Ngingumfundi owenza izifundo zeCriminology esigabeni seMasters eNyuvesi yaKwaZulu-Natal, kwikhampasi iHoward College. Ngenza ucwaningo ngaphansi kwesihloko esithi: 'An understanding of the nature of rural crimes' (*Ukuqonda umsuka wobugengu ezindaweni ezisemakhaya*). Umphakathi wakho ukhethwe ngokuyinhloso ukuthi ube yingxenye yalolucwaningo ngokunjalo nawo ukhethiwe ukuba ube ngomunye wabahlali bakulomphakathi anbazoba ingxenye yocwaningo.

Mayelana nenkulumo ngxoko

Ukuze ngithole ulwazi ngesihloko, ngifisa ukukubuza imibuzo ethile
Qonda lokhu ukulandelayo:

- Kuqinisekisiwe ukuthi ukuba yingxenye kwakho nakho konke ozokusho kuzoba phakathi kwakho nomcwaningi futhi akuzosetshenziswa mayelana nawe kepha kuzosetshenziswa mayelana nomphakathi wonkana.
- Inkulumo phakathi kwakho nomcwaningi ingahle ithathe isikhathi esingamaminithi amathathu kuya ngokuthi uyafisa na ithathe isikhathi esingako
- Ayikho into ozoyisho ezosetshenziswa ngenhloso engekho mayelana nalolucwaningo. Lonke ulwazi oluzoqoqwa luzosetshenziswa mayelana nocwaningo kuphela.
- Imininingwane eqoqiwe izogcinwa endaweni eyimfihlo iminyaka emihlanu, emva kwalokho iyobe isilahlwa.
- Unelungelo lokuvuma noma ukungavumi ukuba yingxenye yalolucwaningo, unelungelo futhi lokushiya maphakathi nocwaningo uma uzizwa kanjalo. Ngeke ujeziswe ngokwenzajalo.
- Ucwaningo luhlose ukuthola nokwakha ulwazi mayelana nobugebengu obusezindaweni ezisemakhaya ngoba umcwaningi uthe mayebheka wathola luluncane kakhulu ucwaningo olwenziwe ezindaweni zasemakhaya. Ucwaningo luzobe selusetshenziswa ekutheni kwazeke ngobugebengu obusezindaweni ezisemakhaya futhi lungasetshenziswa kakhulu ekutholeni izinhlobo zobugebengu ezikhona, imbangela yabo, izinhlobo ezikhona zokubunciphisa kanti nasekulweni ken nje nobugebengu endaweni yaKwa-Maphumulo eStezi
- Izingxoxo zizokwenzelwa emakhaya abantu abazovuma ukuba yingxenye, loku kwenzelwa ukuthi bakhululeke ngendlela.
- Ucwaningo luhlose ukwazi mayelana nembangela yobugebengu obenzeka kulomphakathi, ukuthi lokho kuwaphazamisa kanjani amalungu omphakathi nokuthola ukuthi zikhona yini izinhlobo ezikhona emphakathini ezihlose ukunciphisa ubugebengu.
- Ukuba yingxenye kwakho kumayelana nezemfundo kuphela, awukho umklomelo otholakalayo.
- Uma unaso isfiso sokuba yingxenye yocwaningo, ngicela ubonise (ngokuthikha) ukuthi uyavuma noma cha ukuthi ingxoxo yakho iqoshwe awphoqelekile ukuvam uma ungathandi ukuqoshwa.

- Isiqopha mazwi sibaluleke ngoba siyakwazi ukuthatha konke okushiwo umuntu onikeza ulwazi uma kuqhathaniswa nokuthi umcwaningi akubhale phansi.

	ngiyavuma	Angivumi
Isiqophamazwi		

Ungangithinta kulokhu okulandelayo:
 Email: 212560237@stu.ukzn.ac.za
 Cell: 0746357012

Umntu ongiphethe kulolucwaningo nguNkosazane V. Maweni otholakala kwi-School of Applied Human Sciences, Criminology Department, Howard College campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.
 Contact details: email: Maweniv@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312601773.

Uma unesikhalazo noma ungaphathekanga ngendlela ungathinta ihhovisi lezocwaningo kuleminingwange elandelayo:
 P. Mohun
 HSSREC Research Office,
 Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Ngiyabonga kakhulu ngokuba yingxenye yalolucwaningo.

Appendix B: **Interview schedule**

1. What are the types of crimes that exists in the community?
2. What are the causes of crime?
3. What are the effects of crime to the community?
4. In your opinion, does the distance that exist between the community and the police increases the rate of crime?
5. How far is the police station?
6. How effective are the police?
7. What are the coping strategies?
8. Does the community have any strategies of dealing with crime?
9. Which age group is most likely to commit crime?
10. Which age group in the community is being affected by crime the most?

Appendix C: **Ethical clearance**

Appendix D: Application for gatekeepers letter



The Councillor

Request for Permission to conduct research

My name is Nondumiso Mbatha, and I am a Criminology Masters candidate at the University of KwaZulu Natal. The research I wish to conduct for my Masters is titled “Investigating the nature and extent of crimes in rural area: A case study of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi” . This project will be conducted under the supervision of Miss Vuyelwa Maweni ,a Criminology lecturer at the University. I am hereby seeking your consent to approach a number of members of Kwa-Maphumulo eStezi community to provide participants for this project.

Brief Objectives and hypothesis of the research

Rural crime is an issue that has not been given too much attention. Rural areas need assistance in trying to tackle the issue. The study at hand is an attempt to contribute meaningfully to this discourse by understanding the nature of rural crimes looking at the types of crimes that are existing in rural areas, reasons for occurrence, to determine if the crime prevention strategies used in the community are effective and to determine the effects of these crimes to the community. This study will benefit the Kwamaphumulo Estezi SAPS and the community as a whole in dealing with the issue of crime.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Community with a bound copy of the full research report. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0768072497 emails 212560237@stu.ukzn.ac.za or ndupretty2@gmail.com or can contact my supervisor at 0731565838, 0312601773 email, maweniv@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

Nondumiso Pretty Mbatha

Criminology and forensic studies

University of KwaZulu Natal

Appendix D: Gatekeepers letter